AN   APPLIED LINGUISTIC INVESTIGATION OF   PATTERNS

OF INTERACTION IN UNIVERSITY TUTORIALS

By

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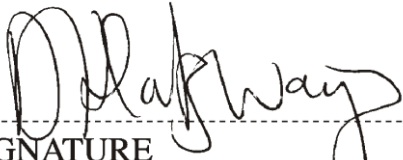DOCTOR OF LITERATURE AND PHILOSOPHY

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Abstract

In South Africa students from disadvantaged educational backgrounds enrol at institutions of higher learning underprepared for the academic work expected of them. One reason for this is that English in South Africa is primarily an urban language and both Black children and teachers, especially in rural areas, lack sufficient exposure to it (Lemmer 1995) and at tertiary institutions students are expected to communicate efficiently in the language of instruction. The real-world problem at issue is ultimately the need for these students studying through the medium of English to develop their ability to participate actively in tutorials to improve both their academic understanding and their spoken discourse competence, which includes the 'highly complex task of participating in talk-in-interaction' (Dalton-Puffer 2007:280). Underlying the present study, then, is the conviction that through frequent interaction in the language of instruction, students will not only gain competence in speaking skills, but also deepen and expand their knowledge of their subject areas. This conviction led to the introduction of tutorials on a trial basis in my department and the study sought to develop a framework for analysing patterns of interaction in the tutorials that would also address the question of how the quality of such patterns might be assessed. The main construct investigated was 'participation effectiveness' (the quantity of speaker discourse acts and turns and speaker initiative at discourse act and turn-taking levels) and the overall findings indicated that third-year students participated more effectively than first-years; females performed better than males; and males in male-led tutorials used more discourse acts than females; while females in female-led tutorials did better than males. The analyses of effects of tutor discourse behaviour on student participation revealed that the types of questions tutors used and how they were combined were strong determinants of students' participation effectiveness. Although the approach of the study is essentially quantitative, the operationalisation of this main construct's two key components, namely 'participation' and 'initiative', forms a basis for also deriving more qualitative insights into this academically very important genre of spoken discourse.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research problem, briefly contextualise it by providing relevant background information, identify the aims of the study, outline the research design and indicate the structure of this study, namely *An applied linguistic investigation of patterns of interaction in university tutorials.* The study is 'applied linguistic' in the conception of the discipline put forward by, for example, Bygate (2005:2) as 'the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue'. The real-world problem at issue is ultimately the need for tertiary level students, studying through a medium (English) that is not their primary language, to develop their ability to participate actively in tutorials so as to improve both their understanding of their subject areas and their spoken discourse competence (Canale and Swain 1980) in the language. This problem is, however, dealt with indirectly, as the research concerns of this study are to investigate empirically interactions in tutorials using a discourse-analytical framework that addresses the important, related theoretical issue of what constitutes quality or effectiveness in such interactions and to what extent this may be measured and assessed.

In this study tutorials have been selected for analysis because of their importance as learning activities in which students can use language in an interactive way to negotiate meaning in the context of their chosen subjects because in lectures opportunities for interaction occur very rarely. Webb (1983) has observed that

in lectures, practical work and self-instructional units,
the opportunities for students to ask questions, express

points of view and generally interact and relate with the

tutor and other students through discussion may be

severely limited. (Webb 1983:118)

Even though the main purpose of lectures is to impart knowledge by way of an essentially monologic discourse, where a lecturer is expected to do all or nearly all the speaking while the students listen, there is also a need to provide opportunities for student interaction, especially in institutions of higher learning such as NWU, where most of the students come from disadvantaged educational backgrounds. Guskin (1997 in Van Aswegen and Dreyer 2004:295) notes that

the primary learning environment for undergraduate students, the

fairly passive lecture-discussion format where teacher educators

talk and most students listen, is contrary to almost every principle

of an optimal student learning setting.

(It should be noted that, although 'learner' and, to some extent, 'educator' have become the standard terms in South Africa for various levels of education, because there is quite a lot of alternating reference in this study to both the secondary and tertiary levels, to differentiate between them more effectively 'student', 'tutor' and 'lecturer' are used in the context of tertiary education and 'learner' and 'teacher' in the context of secondary education).

Guskin's comment implies that students do not learn as well as they could by only receiving information passively, but they also need to participate actively in discussions in order to think reflectively, especially because 'many first-year students arrive at university not having mastery over the new discourses they are acquiring' (Paxton 2007 in Van Schalkwyk et al. 2009:190). Studies have shown that students especially from disadvantaged backgrounds are increasingly underprepared for higher education studies (Tinto1993; Foxcroft and Stumpf

2005 in Nel et al. 2009:975). This therefore affects the transition from school to university and also the level of academic success in first-year.

The present study recognises the need for interaction which for second language learners should not only enhance their understanding of content, but also improve their use of language. Tutorials can provide opportunities 'for more active, interactive and participative learning to facilitate understanding of the subject content, immediate feedback, lowered anxiety and greater ownership of the learning process' (Thomen and Barnes 2005:956). Research has shown that interaction in tutorials does indeed promote participation and therefore might also improve students' language development, more specifically in cases where the students' primary language is not the medium of instruction (Davidowitz & Rollnick 2005; Webb 1983). Thus in institutions such as the Mafikeng campus of the North West University, where this is the case, providing opportunities for interaction could improve the students' proficiency in the language of instruction (English) as well as enhance their understanding of their chosen subject areas.

The assumption made by most lecturers is that students who enrol at tertiary institutions have the required level of language proficiency (as well as academic skills) to cope with the demands of academic discourse, yet experience as well as research findings indicate that this is often not the case. For example, Moyo (1993), Nkosana (1993), Van Schalkwyk et al. (2009), Tinto 1993, Foxcroft and Stumpf (2005 in Nel et al. 2009:975) observed that most school leavers who enter South African universities are not adequately prepared for higher education studies.

Research conducted in some South African universities, for example, shows that some Black students' competence in English is not good enough for them to learn successfully at tertiary level (Moyo 1993, Nkosana 1993, Sarinjeive 1999, Van Schalkwyk et al. 2009). By the time some of these students complete high school education, they have acquired basic interpersonal skills (BICS) through

involvement in everyday conversation, which requires only informal use of language, but lack what Cummins (1981) describes as cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), which includes reading and writing skills as well as understanding of subject specific vocabulary. Because of this, 'underprepared students experience the gap between school and university more acutely'(Niven (2005 in Van Schalkwyk 2009:192). Lemmer (1995) believes that one of the reasons for this language deficiency in the Southern African context is that teachers of English as an additional language often lack the proficiency necessary to enable students to acquire academic skills needed for school success. Langhan (1989 in Lemmer 1995:88) points out that

> teacher training colleges do not equip teachers with the
> principles of language acquisition, and thus teachers
> seldom have the knowledge and skills to support English
> language learning.

The teachers of English as a second language may have acquired grammatical competence and be able to impart this knowledge to their students, but it alone does not provide learners with the ability to interpret or produce language appropriately (Yule 1997). Most of these teachers lack what Yule (1997), following Canale and Swain (1980), describes as sociolinguistic competence, or the ability to use language appropriately, as well as strategic competence, which is the ability 'to organise a message effectively and to compensate, via strategies, for any difficulties' (Yule 1997:197). The lack of these competencies causes most second language teachers in historically disadvantaged schools to resort to rote learning and drill and the use of more than one language medium to teach (e.g. Lemmer 1995), which does not benefit the student whose only exposure to English is in the classroom and it creates a knowledge gap between school and university, as attested for example by a student in Van Schalkwyk et al. (2009:192):

Ja, there's a big difference (*between high school and university*), I mean the lecturers are just giving you the pages, the number of pages you must go and read… in high school, they giving the notes, each and every notes [sic] on the board. They explain them… (*at university*) you are supposed to do the notes by yourself, you are supposed to do the class work by yourself and more work is done by you.

The monologic discourse, typical of lectures in higher education (as indicated by this student) would have very little effectiveness in improving the students' ability to cope at tertiary level because they 'receive information passively rather than participate actively' and this type of approach, as also noted by King and Kitchener (1994 in Van Aswegen and Dreyer 2004:295) is 'not effective in encouraging them to think reflectively'.

Research shows that teachers continue to emphasise form over communication. In a study of five English as a second language (ESL) lessons in Lesotho (Greyling and Rantsoai 2000:289), for example, a teacher and a researcher tried to build up a profile of both the teacher's discourse and her teaching style. It was found that the teacher used a traditional, accuracy-based approach in these lessons. She also took charge of the turn-taking system, allocating turns and restricting learner initiative. Even when a lesson is supposed to be communicative, patterns of interaction tend to resemble patterns common in classroom interaction rather than genuine interaction (Nunan 1987) . This is largely because 'the teacher is central to the classroom interaction, while students are passive listeners. They have no time to ask questions, they always rely on the teacher's instructions and cannot solve problems independently' (Tuan et al. 2010:31). Musumeci (1996 in Tuan et al. 2010: 31) attributes this lack of interaction in classrooms to teacher talk time which occupies three quarters of the allocated teaching and learning time and leaves very little time for students to ask questions. Kundu (1993 in Tuan et al. 2010:31) expressed a similar finding in the following words:

> Most of the time we talk in class, hardly ever giving our students
> a chance to talk, except when we occasionally ask them questions.
> Even on such occasions because we insist on answers in full
> sentences and penalise them for their mistakes, they are always
> on the defensive. (Kundu 1993 in Tuan et al. 2010: 31)

This type of teaching is common also in most of our local high schools. As already indicated earlier, this is attributable to the fact that English in South Africa is primarily an urban language and both Black children and teachers, especially in the rural areas, lack sufficient exposure to it and opportunities to practise using it. This in turn affects their academic work at tertiary institutions. My own observation and experience of teaching at NWU Mafikeng campus over many years bears this out. Also, a study conducted by Agar (1990) at the same institution showed that over 90% of the students enrol underprepared for the academic work expected of them because of the type of teaching that prevails in most of their schools.

Most of these students are products of the local high schools in the North West Province. Teachers at their schools are still mostly products of the former Bantu Education, which is the system of education that separated South Africans according to their race during the time of apartheid. As a result of this segregated system of education, Black teachers received poor training from lecturers who were also products of the same system of education at underresourced colleges (Chick 1992; Lemmer 1995:82). Even after the birth of democracy in South Africa 'higher education can barely rely on secondary schools to adequately prepare learners for higher education' (Viljoen 2005 in Nel et al. 2009).

This poor training has affected the way in which the English language is taught. For example, the emphasis on rote learning is one reason why students graduate from high school having failed to acquire communication and academic skills

required for tertiary education (Nkosana 1993). Allwright (1984:157) says 'all too often the learner has to make too big a leap from classroom drill to genuine communication' because at tertiary level there is not much scaffolding in terms of improving proficiency in the language of instruction provided for such students. According to Maxakato (1999 in Nel et al. 2009:975) the school to university gap is increased not only by the school system which tends 'to produce inadequately prepared students for higher education, but also by universities that are ill-equipped to accommodate these learners-particularly learners from disadvantaged backgrounds.'

The argument put forward here is that students, especially from disadvantaged educational backgrounds, are definitely expected to make too big a leap in terms of communicating freely in the language of instruction at tertiary level, yet they have not been adequately prepared for this. Foxcroft and Stumpf (2005 in Nel et al. 2009:975) urge South African universities to become actively involved in preparing learners for further studies. The present study, however, does not profess to explore matters that will ultimately resolve all the language problems students bring to university. Its main concern is to develop a framework for describing and analysing patterns of interaction in university tutorials and to use it to investigate students' 'participation effectiveness', which incorporates the amount of students' discourse acts and turns and initiative at discourse act and turn-taking levels (§ 1.1). The introduction of tutorials in the teaching and learning of first and third-year students in the Department of English at NWU was the result of a pilot project which convinced me that if tutorials formed part of the teaching mode students would benefit in terms of language development and participation. Furthermore, the benefits of tutorials, as discussed in the literature, also stimulated me to argue for their introduction as part of the teaching and learning environment provided to enable students to interact with one another in a less formal, anxiety-free atmosphere, which will encourage them to participate more actively through asking questions, seeking clarification of concepts and

negotiating the meaning of the tasks assigned with their fellow group members. Shaw et al. (2008) view tutorials as

> real spaces within which individuals attempt to physically,
> verbally and intellectually interact with one another. They
> can provide a range of opportunities to allow student to
> engage with the ideas presented in lectures, readings and
> discussions, as well as helping them to develop the conceptual
> and theoretical resources needed to negotiate more complex
> material. (Shaw et al. 2008:705)

This is also confirmed by the following response from a male student in Van Schalkwyk et al. (2009:196):

> … the tutorial just uhm, uhm gets a (feeling) of nervousness off
> your shoulder. In lectures you feel you, you can't answer or ask
> this question 'cause you feel you might be stupid, but in smaller
> groups you, you just have a greater confidence… and the lecturer
> in the tutorials just concentrates on you, you feel more important
> than say in the bigger lecture… (Male student, 2007)

Tutorials have been described as learning situations where students work together in groups small enough that everyone can participate in a collective task that has been clearly assigned (Cohen 1994, Davidowitz & Rollnick 2005). Although the role of tutors in tutorials may vary from situation to situation, the common factor is the active involvement of students in the learning process.

Studies on tutorials have shown that if they are organised and run properly, they can be an effective method to foster active participation between students. Clouston and Kleinman (1999), for example, noted that when students become active participants in a learning environment, retention of information can reach

very high levels. They also noted that tutorials serve as a means of developing effective learning in small groups, especially where lecturer-student interaction may be limited in large classes, as is the case at NWU Mafikeng campus.

Similarly, Johnson and Johnson (1983) and Huddle et al (1992) observed that first-year students working cooperatively in small groups increased achievement and self-esteem, stimulated cognitive achievement, and promoted a liking for the discipline. Gibbs (1981, in Huddle et al 1992) found that a useful way in which students become involved in the process of learning was by participation in group discussions. Sawyer and Berson (2004:388) observed that college students working in groups collaborated to resolve issues, clarify material from lectures and helped each other to appropriate the knowledge transmitted in the original lecture. Bruffee (1993) argued more generally that students learn most effectively and profoundly via interaction with peers.

A tutorial system may be a successful strategy in improving students' performance because 'it facilitates personal support network development for students, who might otherwise be at risk if these networks were not in place' (Thomen and Barnes 2005:956). Tutorials are, then, the focus of this study because they enable students to get the attention that comes with being in small groups. As the students are working in groups of five or six on average, they enjoy opportunities to ask questions of their tutor or peers and they also get immediate feedback from their tutors. Working in small groups should ensure that all members participate, argue among themselves and get an opportunity to initiate discussions without fearing that they may 'lose face'. Though this might be the general feeling of several students, in Van Schalkwyk et al. (2009:197) some students preferred being part of 'the larger class and their passive role there', as reflected in the following comment from a female student in that study:

> … the large class works better for me than the small groups do.
> Because in the small group they expect you to give your opinion…

Even though this student feels comfortable in a large class, none of the benefits that are usually available in tutorials are also available in lectures.

The foregoing discussion has shown that most students from disadvantaged educational backgrounds who enrol at institutions of higher learning have acquired BICS through involvement in everyday conversation, but lack CALP (Cummins 1981), which includes reading and writing skills as well as understanding of subject specific vocabulary and the ability to negotiate meaning in academic contexts. The lack of these skills makes it difficult for the students to cope with academic discourse at this level. Research, however, has shown that tutorials can provide opportunities for more active, interactive and participative learning; enhance comprehension of the subject matter and improve their second language proficiency.

1.1 The research problem

As indicated in the previous section, earlier studies as well as recent ones on second language learning and teaching of content subjects through the medium of English (e.g. Cohen 1994, Davidowitz & Rollnick 2005) have shown that the learning environment must include opportunities for learners to engage in meaningful social interaction with other users to discover the linguistic and sociolinguistic rules necessary for comprehension and production (Kasanga 1996a, Long 1981, Pica 1987, Pica 1994, Shehadeh 2002, Swain and Lapkin 1995). Research has shown that students do not learn much just by sitting in class listening to teachers, memorising prepackaged assignments and spitting out answers (Chickering and Gamson 1987 in Van Aswegen and Dreyer 2004:295), but what is important for them is active participation in the learning environment. For example, Ely (1986 in Pica 1994:202) found a high correlation between students' classroom participation and their oral correctness. Pica (1994), also found that interaction in group work enabled students to use the

second language across a broader range of social and interpersonal functions than did lockstep, teacher-led classroom interaction. Further evidence on the importance of interaction was provided by Seliger (1977) who observed that learners who initiated and participated in interaction (i.e. High Input Generators or HIGS, as he referred to them) in and out of the classroom made more rapid progress than the Low Input Generators or LIGS. This observation was made in a study of six college students enrolled in an intensive ESL program with as much verbal interaction as possible. A single word or several sentences tabulated for each student was counted as an interaction. This was an impressionistic measure of classroom interaction compared to the present study which employs an analytical approach to distinguish between high and low levels of participation and also attempts to measure the quality of students' spoken discourse. So, to some extent at least, this study aims at explicating the intuitions about the overall level of students' participation in different tutorials, as revealed in the responses of a number of lecturers at NWU when they were asked to give an impressionistic evaluation of first and third-year tutorials.

The research problems this study seeks to address can be conceptualised at three levels, namely theoretical-methodological, descriptive and applicational. At the theoretical-methodological level, an attempt will be made to adapt and develop an analytical framework that can be used to both describe and evaluate interaction in an educational context such as a university tutorial. The research problem that covers the theoretical-methodological aspect of the study can be formulated as the following question:

(i)   How can one develop an analytical framework that captures
        important aspects of both the quantity and quality of participation
        in tutorials?

In the study, both quantity and quality are built into the notion of 'participation effectiveness', operationalised in terms of the amount of participation generated

by the students at discourse act and turn-taking level (a quantitative matter) and the degree of initiative they reveal also at these two levels (an essentially qualitative matter).

This framework, which is discussed in detail in Chapter 3, is, then, construed in terms of discourse acts and turns. It provides an account of what constitutes effectiveness in the discourse of tutorials, combining analysis of discourse acts derived from Crombie (1985a) and Hubbard (1998) (§ 3.4.1) as used within speaking turns, together with initiative categories defined in terms of turn-taking mechanisms (Van Lier 1988). The number of discourse acts used by participants serves as a quantitative measure of interaction, but, because different types of acts can be differentiated from one another in terms of the degree of participation, it will be argued that the discourse act analysis also provides a measure of quality of interaction.

Developing a framework that combines analysis of discourse acts and turns and that incorporates initiative categories and applying it to a sample of first-year and third-year university tutorials should make it possible to understand what occurs in these tutorials in terms of participation and initiative - for example, whether a particular contribution is initiated by a learner or is simply made in response to a teacher's specific allocation (Van Lier 1988:123). The focus is not only on turn-taking patterns, but also on the discourse acts within each turn. Linking turn-taking and discourse act analyses into a framework that is applied to the sample data will thus make it possible to look at students' participation quantitatively (that is the frequency measurement of students' participation in terms of turn-taking and discourse acts) as well as qualitatively (that is the degree of students' initiative at turn taking and discourse act levels). Initiative at turn taking level is determined by distinguishing between initiative bearing and non-initiative-bearing turns, while initiative at discourse act level is determined in terms of the ranking of the acts on a cline, discussed in detail in Chapter 3 (§ 3.5).

The study also, however, in a separate small-scale supplementary exploration, investigates the possibility of certain features of cohesion in student discourse being indicators of quality. This supplementary exploration was motivated by research that indicated a correlation between high rated academic writing and certain types of cohesion (Fahnestock 1983, Hubbard 1989 and Ramasawmy 2004). The present study explores the validity of an extension to these findings from writing in academic contexts to speaking in an academic context such as university tutorials. This is done by testing whether a selection of the tutorials in which participation effectiveness was higher revealed a higher density of certain cohesion features than is the case in less effective tutorials.

In contrast to what has been termed a theoretical-methodological level, at what might be called a descriptive level, the research problem is construed in terms of describing relevant features of the situation researched. The variables that will be investigated are year of study, student and tutor gender and tutor discourse behaviour in tutorials. To guide the investigation of these variables, the research problems can be formulated in terms of the following research questions:

(i)   Do third-year students participate more effectively than
        first-years in tutorials?

(ii)   How does student gender affect students' participation effectiveness
        in tutorials?

(iii)   How does tutor gender affect students' participation effectiveness
        in tutorials?

(iv)   How does tutor discourse behaviour affect students' participation
        effectiveness in tutorials?

Aspects of these variables have been investigated by other researchers (see Chapter 2). For example, in Webb's (1983) first and third-year undergraduate Geography tutorials with four tutors, it was found that third-years took more tutorial talk time than first-years. Webb's findings provide relevant insights for the present study that also seeks to investigate the differences in participation between first and third-year students. The focus in the present study is not only on the frequency of participation, but also on the quality of students' participation in tutorials, which is the degree of initiative at turn taking and discourse act levels.

Studies on how student gender affects participation have repeatedly identified males as dominant participants in mixed-gender interactions and females as relatively submissive participants ready to yield to male interruptions. In a study of postgraduate White and Black students at a South African university, for example, De Klerk (1995b) found that most turns in mixed interactions were taken by male students whose turns were also longer than the females. Coates and Cameron (1988), Corson (1993), West and Zimmerman (1977) and West (1979) reported similar findings. The situation described in the present study and the student profiles in tutorial groups being investigated are different from the studies cited above. The students in this study use English as an additional language and the majority of them come from rural backgrounds and these conditions may contribute to how they participate in mixed-gender interactions.

The third variable that this study seeks to explore is whether or not tutor gender might also affect students' participation in groups that might not be very familiar with the norms and conventions of speech floors and turn-taking in interactive academic activities. Studies on this aspect have shown that gender has an impact on students' participation. In Canada and Pringle (1995), for instance, female professors in mixed-gender classes initiated more interactions than did male professors and the female-led classes were more professor driven and less student driven than were male-led classes. Also, the female professors in small

size classes initiated more successful interactions than did the male professors, but in large classes, the number of invitations extended by female professors and accepted by the students was less than in the male professors' classes. Similarly, and more locally, in De Klerk (1995b), female-led seminars had more student turns than the male-led seminars.

The fourth variable, tutor discourse behaviour, refers to how tutors use discourse in the tutorials to influence students' participation effectiveness. Studies have shown that teachers do this through different questions. In Long and Sato (1983), for example, questions did not only facilitate and sustain participation between native and non-native speakers, but they also served to signal speaking turns for the non-native speakers to make the conversational topics salient and encourage them to participate. Questions can help make linguistic input comprehensible, provide non-native interlocutors more speaking opportunities (Long and Sato 1983) and can expand the students' understanding of the subject matter (Kim 2004). However, not all questions posed by teachers fulfill these objectives. Various studies have shown that open referential questions (i.e. questions to which the speaker does not know the answer) trigger more student participation than closed display questions (i.e. questions such as yes/no questions requiring relatively straightforward, precise and limited responses) (Brock 1986:48, Hung 2004 and Suter 2001). The different types of questions used by tutors in the tutorials are discussed later (§ 2.4 and § 3. 5).

At the descriptive level, then, the analytical framework set out here was used in the Department of English at the Mafikeng campus of the NWU to describe the participation patterns of first-year and third-year students in tutorials, how student and tutor gender affect participation effectiveness and to describe the effects of tutor discourse behaviour, in terms of using different types of questions, on students' participation effectiveness in tutorials.

The study does not seek to address problems at an applicational level directly (such as raising awareness of what makes for effective tutorials in terms of participation and initiative in university tutorials), but it is hoped that findings and insights derived from the focus on the research problems articulated above will indeed provide a resource for raising awareness among tutors and lecturers as to how the effectiveness of tutorials can be improved. The ultimate benefit would be the improvement of their students' subject knowledge as well as higher proficiency in the language of learning and teaching.

The research problems identified above link closely with the aims and the hypotheses of the study, as presented below.

1.2 Aims

In this section the aims, which like the research questions are divided into three levels, are presented. At the theoretical-methodological level, the study aims:

    (a)   to develop an analytical framework that captures both the quantity and the quality of interaction in tutorials.

The framework will be used to analyse the tutorial data quantitatively. This is done firstly in terms of the number of discourse acts and turns. However, aspects of quality are also analysed, as the framework postulates certain acts and turns as constituting more effective participation than others and quantifies these as well. A subsidiary study explores a possible relationship between the density of the use of certain types of cohesion (e.g. discontinuatives and causatives) by students and the participation effectiveness of the students.

The descriptive aims of the study, concomitant with the research problems at this level articulated in the previous section, are to explore

(a)   whether third-year students will participate more effectively than first-year students;

(b)   how student gender might affect their participation in tutorials;

(c)   how tutor gender might affect student participation in tutorials;

(d)   and how tutor discourse behaviour might affect student participation in tutorials.

At an applied level, it is hoped that findings and insights derived from the research problems outlined above will raise tutors and lecturers' awareness about how the effectiveness of tutorials can be improved.

The descriptive aims lead naturally on to the hypotheses that guide this study.

1.3 Hypotheses

The four hypotheses used in this study derive from the descriptive aims. The notion of 'participation effectiveness' as applied in these hypotheses is operationalised in terms of the total number of discourse acts and turns produced by students as well as the quality of the acts and turns in terms of the degree of initiative used by the students.

(a) H$_1$: Year of Study hypothesis

The third-year students will participate more effectively in tutorials than the first-year students.

(b) H$_2$: Student Gender hypothesis

The male students will participate more effectively in tutorials than the female students.

(c) H_3: *Tutor Gender hypothesis*

There is a relationship between tutor gender and student participation effectiveness in tutorials.

(d) H_4: *Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis*

There is a relationship between tutor discourse behaviour and student participation effectiveness in tutorials.

These four hypotheses will be discussed in (§ 3.2).

1.4 Research design

This section provides a brief introductory description of the research design of this study, using Seliger and Shohamy's (1989) four parameters, namely synthetic and analytic approaches; heuristic and deductive objectives; control and manipulation of the research context and data collection.

The first parameter distinguishes between synthetic and analytical approaches to the phenomenon being investigated. Synthetic approaches consider the interdependency of the parts that form a coherent whole, while analytic approaches examine the different parts that make up the total phenomenon separately (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:27). In the present study, the approach adopted is essentially analytic. The focus is on investigating students' participation effectiveness in terms of the total number of discourse acts and turns, the degree of initiative at discourse act and turn-taking levels, and secondarily, the possible relationship between students' participation effectiveness and the density of the use of discontinuatives and causatives in their discourse.

The second parameter relates to the theoretical objective of a study, which could either be heuristic or deductive. A heuristic objective implies that the study begins with a general idea that guides the data gathering process and the development of hypothesis about the phenomenon the researcher wishes to investigate. The process is described as heuristic because of its inductive nature. A deductive objective, on the other hand, implies that the study begins with preconceived notions or hypothesis to be confirmed or rejected (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:58), usually by statistical testing. The present study can be characterised as deductive, as it is driven mainly by four hypotheses, although the final one, the tutor discourse behaviour hypothesis, was analysed qualitatively rather than tested statistically because of the complexity of the variables involved.

The third parameter deals with the degree of control and manipulation of the different factors of the research context. In this study there is some control of variables such as the educational background of the students, the year of study, their gender and the fact that they all use English as an additional language and that tutorials were a new learning experience for all of them. The present study is 'descriptive' in Seliger and Shohamy's (1989:117) conception of the term as an 'investigation which utilizes already existing data or non-experimental research with a pre-conceived hypothesis'. The study involved existing groups of first and third-year students, no attempt was made to control the gender balance in tutorials and there was also no experimental treatment, but just observation and recording of the students' participation in the tutorials.

The fourth parameter of Seliger and Shohamy (1989) is concerned with the kinds of data and the manner in which they are collected. In this study, the data collection is a relatively explicit procedure in that it involves observation and video recording of the tutorials. Although video cameras are said to have an intrusive element when it comes to data collection, a strategy was applied to limit this intrusiveness (§ 3.3). The analyses essentially involved quantitative

measures with both quantitative and qualitative interpretations of the students' spoken discourse in tutorials.

In terms of the four parameters, the present study can then be broadly characterised as having an analytic approach, deductive objectives, a degree of control of the research context typical of descriptive studies, and involving collection of data primarily for quantitative purposes, but which includes a degree of qualitative interpretation in addition to quantitative analysis. Thus this study exemplifies a mixed design.

1.5 Structure of the study

In the remainder of the study, Chapter 2 explores the research literature on interaction, initiative and second language acquisition and frameworks that have been used to analyse interaction and initiative. Insights drawn from the literature are related to the aims, the research problem and the hypotheses of the study. Chapter 3, which deals with the methodology of this study, presents the analytical framework of discourse acts, turns and initiative categories and illustrates its application to a sample of the tutorials. Chapter 4 presents and discusses the research findings and Chapter 5 assesses the contribution of the study and considers its limitations as well as suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2

INTERACTION, INITIATIVE AND ACQUISITION

2.0 Introduction

The aims of the present study can be summarised as follows: to develop an analytical framework that can provide a relatively objective measure of interaction and initiative in tutorials and to apply it as the main instrument for investigating a number of relevant variables. Interaction in this study refers to students' participation in the tutorials, as well as to the quality of this participation, construed in terms of the concept of initiative. The amount and quality of participation of the students in the tutorials is assessed in terms of the analytical framework developed and discussed in Chapter 3.

Interaction in second language research is presented as a necessary condition for comprehension and acquisition because as the learners exchange ideas and negotiate meaning, they also expand their vocabulary and improve their spoken language. As early as the 1980s, the Interaction Hypothesis attributed to Long (1980) posited that negotiating meaning through interactional modification features such as confirmation checks, requests for clarification and repetitions resulted in comprehensible input, thus promoting language acquisition. Through negotiation, it was believed that learners would expand their understanding of new vocabulary and structure that they would then use in their own production. There is considerable evidence in the literature for the effect of input modification (Chaudron 1983) and interactional modification (Doughty and Pica 1986, Pica 1994) on second language comprehension.

As the focus of the study is to investigate patterns of interaction in university tutorials, this chapter begins by pointing up the significance of interaction in second language acquisition processes. Then the focus moves to different

frameworks that have been developed to analyse classroom discourse and interaction in small group discussions. The review also considers different findings on the relationship between gender and interaction and how initiative in turn-taking has been analysed, so preparing the ground for the presentation in Chapter 3 of the analytical framework applied in this study. In addition, studies on different types of questions and their effects on student participation are discussed. Also studies on cohesion in students' writing are briefly reviewed to see how the density of certain cohesive features correlates with quality in academic writing, as this topic is relevant to the exploration of cohesion in spoken academic discourse in this study. The objective of the present chapter is, therefore, to explore the research literature on interaction, initiative and second language acquisition and the frameworks that have been used to analyse interaction and initiative.

2.1 Interaction, input and output

Interaction in this study is construed as participation and taking of initiative in tutorials by the students. Scholars have defined it in different ways. For example, in the Bullock Report it is defined as a:

> verbal encounter through which the teacher draws information
> from the class, elaborates and generalises it, and produces a
> synthesis. (Bullock Report 1975 in Tichapondwa 2008:40)

This definition seems to imply that the teacher has more control of the students' discourse in a learning situation than the learners. Tichapondwa (2008:40) argues that 'classroom interaction involves an awareness of language options allowing the teacher to exercise control over the interaction, and, therefore, the educational process', while Allwright (1984:159), refers to interaction as a 'co-production', in which all participants including the teacher have a joint responsibility for the discourse used in a learning activity. Van Lier (1988:91)

argues that, 'interaction presupposes participation, personal involvement, and the taking of initiative in some way.' Tuan et al. (2010) describe interaction as follows:

> In interaction at least two individuals participate in an oral and /or written exchange in which production and reception alternate and may in fact overlap in oral communication. Even where turn-taking is strictly respected, the listener is generally already forecasting the remainder of the speaker's message and preparing a response. Learning to interact thus involves more than listening to receive and produce utterances. (Tuan et al. 2010:29-30)

These behaviours are manifested differently in second language classroom activities, as shown in the sections below.

In the second language literature the ingredient for successful interaction is comprehensible input made available to the interactants. Input is defined as 'the language which a learner hears or receives and from which he can learn' (Richards et al.1997:182). In the case of tutorials this could mean tasks and different discussion questions used by tutors to involve the students in the tutorial discussions. The significance of comprehensible input between interactants has been at the centre of language acquisition studies since the introduction of Krashen's (1981) Input Hypothesis, which states that human beings acquire language by understanding messages or by receiving input which is slightly beyond their acquired level of competence. Claims have been made that with sufficient exposure to comprehensible input, acquisition occurs automatically (Krashen & Terrell 1983). Krashen's Input Hypothesis was strongly criticised by other researchers. Smith (1986:243), for example, felt that Krashen's comprehensible input did not make a distinction between surface input and acquisition input, i.e. input used to advance the learner's interlanguage. He claimed that in the case of comprehension, surface input is only briefly registered

and for acquisition, the learner needs both the surface structure analysis and a semantic representation of the input and this was not explicit in Krashen's hypothesis. Another criticism came from Faerch and Kasper (1986 in Ellis 1991:20), who claimed that acquisition occurred only when a learner perceived a knowledge gap between the input and his current knowledge and this also was not explicitly stated in Krashen's Input Hypothesis. White (1987), also arguing against the Input Hypothesis, stated that it did not spell out exactly how the new input combined with the learner's existing competence to bring about change. She also stated that some grammatical features could not be acquired through comprehensible input, but required feedback or negative input as she put it.

In spite of these criticisms, the Input Hypothesis made a significant contribution to second language teaching and learning and also opened a way for further research on language acquisition. For example, Long (1983a) looked beyond Krashen's (1981) Comprehensible Input and argued for negotiated interaction after the findings of a study of 16 Japanese students indicated that interaction between native and non-native speakers entailed interactional adjustments. Using this finding, he argued that 'modifications to the interactional structure of conversation were the most important and widely used way of making input comprehensible' (Ellis1991:6). In terms of his Interaction Hypothesis, Long (1983) argued that learners tend to negotiate meaning through comprehension checks, confirmation checks and clarification requests and this enhances comprehension, promotes second language acquisition and improves participation in an interaction.

The introduction and use of these interactional features were informed by the view with regard to second language acquisition 'that learners can advance their receptive and expressive capacities in the target language if they obtained the interlocutor's assistance in understanding linguistic material not currently within their second language repertoire' (Pica1987:5).The requests for assistance, it was believed, served to restructure interaction between a learner and an

interlocutor so that meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary and structures in the interlocutor's message was repeated or reworded until it was understood by the learner. The feedback the interactants received from their interlocutors enabled them to notice gaps in their acquired knowledge and to improve their production.

Claims were also made by researchers (e.g. Long 1981, Pica et al.1986, 1987) that for mutual comprehension to occur there had to be a shared need and desire between learners and interlocutors to understand each other. Such a need, however, did not seem inherent in second language classrooms, where teaching was lockstep. The positing of the Interaction Hypothesis encouraged further research on the relationship between comprehensible input and language acquisition. To investigate this relationship, some researchers focused on one-way activities, that is activities such as decision-making and instruction tasks in which there was no information gap to be filled by learners (Pica 1987); while others concentrated on two-way activities, that is activities where learners had different bits of information, which they all required to complete an assigned activity. In one decision-making activity, for example, which required a group consensus on a potential recipient for a heart transplant, only the dominant students took part in the discussion and the others could not participate.

Another study which investigated whether using one-way tasks would increase students' participation was conducted by Gass and Varonis (1985). In this study, a participant had to describe a picture to an interlocutor without letting him see it. Very little interaction occurred as the task required students to listen and draw. When the task was repeated using a different picture with the roles of the speaker and interlocutor reversed, the difference in participation remained the same. Thus this type of one-way task appears not to be suitable for encouraging active student participation. Clearly, this activity stifled learner initiative as it did not require the students to generate new discourse.

The lack of participation in one-way tasks pointed up the value of research on information gap activities (Doughty and Pica 1986 and Pica 1985, 1987) which attempted to involve all the participants in a group activity as each member possessed some information that the others wanted and had the right to request and a responsibility to share (Doughty & Pica 1986, Kasanga 1996a, Pica 1985, 1987). For example, the same task that Pica (1987) had used for a decision-making activity was used for an information exchange activity in which a student had to reconstruct a master configuration by sharing information with another student. As this task required information sharing, the students generated more modification of interaction than in the decision-making activity to complete the task. The results from Pica's (1987) study led her to conclude that,

> what enables learners to move beyond their current
> interlanguage receptive and expressive capacities
> when they need to understand unfamiliar linguistic
> input or when required to produce a comprehensible
> message are opportunities to modify and restructure
> their interaction with their interlocutor until mutual
> comprehension is reached. (Pica 1987:8)

This was only possible in activities which genuinely required information sharing. Similarly, in a study of Zairean students taking English as a foreign language conducted by Kasanga (1996a), learners working in pairs were given a convergent task consisting of two coloured maps with information gaps and a divergent task, which was a topic discussion also with two participants. The convergent task required information gap exchanges, while in the divergent task contributions from both participants were not a requirement to complete it, as there was no information gap to be filled. The results of these two activities showed more interactional modifications in the convergent task than in the divergent task. The fewer interactional modifications in the divergent task could be attributed to the nature of the task as well as the fact that both participants

shared the same interlanguage and therefore did not need to modify their interaction. The findings in the convergent task (Kasanga 1996a) and Pica's (1987) decision making activity briefly discussed above are consistent with the findings in Iwashita (1993 in Shehadeh 1999:621), where two-way activities enhanced students' comprehension through negotiating meaning, improved their participation as well as their use of the second language.

Also, in McDonough (2004a), Pica (1992) and Seliger (1977), the students who benefited from two-way activities were those who were actively involved in the discussions. In Seliger's study, the learners also benefited from input they received outside the classroom. Because of this, they gained more competence and developed at a faster and qualitatively better rate than those learners who only received limited amounts of focused input and did not seek out additional practice opportunities outside the classroom.

Even though studies on interactional modification have shown that, for effective communication to take place between natives and non-natives as well as between non-native speakers, there has to be negotiation of meaning through modified input, clarification requests, confirmation checks and many other strategies available to native speakers and their interlocutors (Doughty and Pica 1984, 1986, Long 1980, 1981, Kasanga 1996a, Pica 1987,1988, Pica and Doughty 1985a,1987), some researchers have questioned the emphasis in some interactionists' approaches, which tend to concentrate on comprehensible input in the negotiating of meaning without being sufficiently explicit about comprehensible output. These researchers include Izumi (2002, 2003), Mackey (2006), McDonough (2004a), Pica (1994a), Shehadeh (2002,2004), Swain (1985, 1993) and Swain & Lapkin (1995).

The groundbreaking study on the significance of second language production by Swain (1985) known as the Output Hypothesis, postulates that producing language may facilitate acquisition by creating opportunities for learners to notice

knowledge gaps in their interlanguage. In other words, through feedback on their output, the learners would notice a mismatch between the interlanguage and the target language forms and then modify their previous output to produce more accurate language (Swain 1993, 1995). The Output Hypothesis, based on many years of research on the Canadian immersion programme, was formulated in response to Krashen's claim about the major role of the Input Hypothesis in the acquisition process. Swain's observation of immersion learners who studied French from kindergarten to Grade 6, but could not achieve native-like accuracy prompted her to focus on production. The possible reason given by Swain (1985) was that these learners were not given sufficient output opportunities. Allen et al. (1990 in Izumi 2003) described the immersion classes as teacher-centered and learners were not often required to produce extended answers.

The interest in the Output Hypothesis research was driven by the 'claim that production makes a learner move from semantic processing prevalent in comprehension to more 'syntactic processing' necessary for second language development' (Izumi 2003:168). Further studies on the output hypothesis reported positive findings for the functions of output. For the noticing function, for example, Swain (1997) explored how dialogue enabled learners to notice gaps in their interlanguage and help them in internalising their linguistic knowledge (Swain 1995, 1997).

Further research on the output hypothesis focused on different language aspects. For example, McDonough (2004b) investigated the form of negative feedback used by the learners in activities involving the conditional clauses. The students who benefited from these activities were those identified as active participants. They demonstrated improved production of the conditionals. These results are consistent with those of Pica (1992) and Seliger (1977), which showed that students benefit by being actively involved in the discussions, even though their studies focused on fluency rather than accuracy.

Similarly, Mackey (2006) in a study involving 28 ESL university students noticed that interactional feedback promoted noticing of second language form. The task given to the students involved keeping learning journals of the language forms they were noticing. The majority of the experimental group indicated higher levels of noticing of plural forms, question forms and past tense than the control group, who had not received form focused interactional feedback. The findings from this study seem to suggest that learners benefit from monitoring their own language development and progress.

The research findings on the output hypothesis briefly discussed above indicate considerable gains in fluency, accuracy and noticing of knowledge gaps by the more actively participating students (Iwashita 1999 in Iwashita 2001 and Izumi 2000, 2003; Mackey 2006, McDonough 2004a; Swain and Lapkin1995; Swain 1985, 1995, 1997). The studies have also revealed that receiving feedback in the form of explanation tends to help students correct misconceptions and strengthen connections between new information and previous learning, thus taking them from the known to the unknown (Webb et al. 2004). These studies show that while input is invaluable to the acquisition process, to improve fluency and accuracy, second language learners also need comprehensible output to be made possible by providing output opportunities. It is in the output activities that students' active participation, which is 'a prerequisite for interaction and communication' (Van Lier 1988:93), is manifested. This information is relevant to the present study in that students' effective participation is measured through their output. Feedback is also identified as a feature in classroom discourse (Cullen 1998) that improves students' output by enabling them to produce coherent and accurate discourse when discussing academic content.

In a different study, which investigated participation in literature discussions, Kim (2004) observed that the students asked open-ended questions, responded to comments by other students and intellectually challenged each other's opinions.

It was also noticed that students related the reading of the texts to their own personal experiences and such a connection enhanced their comprehension. In addition, the data revealed that the students negotiated meaning through clarification requests when they experienced difficulty in literal comprehension of certain expressions. When the students were later interviewed about their experiences during the discussion, they reported that the literature discussions enhanced their literary awareness and enabled them to recognise the weaknesses of a novel, which is an important critical skill in academic discourse. Kim (2004) commented that the literature discussions provided ample opportunities for producing extended output, which according to Swain (1985, 1997), Shehadeh (2002) and Izumi (2002), contributes to enhancing communicative competence in the second language.

The insights derived from Kim's (2004) findings are crucial for the present study, as they show that even the discussion of academic content can improve the quality of students' participation and language output. It is also important to note the benefits students gained in terms of depth of subject knowledge and expanded vocabulary, which resulted from the type of literature tasks students were assigned to do and the open-ended questions that they used.

The studies reviewed above have indicated that learning success requires successful provision of comprehensible input to ensure learners understand the assigned tasks. The findings have highlighted the importance of interaction in enhancing participation through information gap activities. In addition to the type of task, the findings have revealed that the students who tend to benefit most in these activities are those that Seliger (1977) describes as high interaction getters or those who actively participate in discussions, as shown also in Kim (2004) and McDonough (2004b). Providing interactional feedback (Cullen 1998) has also been identified as an important factor in helping students produce more accurate and coherent discourse. The findings further showed that literature discussions contribute significantly to improving students' spoken discourse, in expanding

their subject knowledge by initiating discussions and posing open-ended questions (Kim 2004), which have been shown to contribute considerably to second language development (Tichapondwa 2008).

The other important aspect revealed by the findings is feedback, which enables students to get involved in the more meaning focused interaction required for effective participation. Thus, reviewing studies on input, interaction and output in this chapter has shown that through involvement in activities which require learners to use the second language for genuine communication purposes, they improve the quality of their participation and language development, they become aware of the linguistic gaps in their knowledge and they gain in-depth knowledge of their subject content.

2.2 Interaction in small group discussions and tutorials

The terms, 'group work', 'seminar' and 'tutorial' tend to be used interchangeably by certain writers in the second language literature. For example, in Davidowitz and Rollnick (2005), Huddle et al (1992), Hunt (1997), Macdonough (1991) and Webb (1983), the term small group discussion covers both group work and tutorials, which are also referred to as seminars by some researchers (De Klerk 1994, 1995a and 1995b). The common factor in small groups and seminars is the small number of participants, which allows each member to actively participate in discussions and also benefit from individual attention, which is lacking in classroom interactions. According to Davidowitz and Rollnick (2005):

> tutorial sessions have been described as learning situations,
> where students work together in groups small enough that
> everyone can participate in a collective task that has been
> clearly assigned. (Davidowitz & Rollnick 2005:138)

This description of tutorials implies that there are benefits to be derived from small group participation. Studies conducted to explore small group discussions have in most cases shown positive results. Long and Porter (1985), for example, identified the following pedagogical benefits of group work. They claimed that it had the potential to increase the quantity of language practice opportunities, to improve the quality of student talk, to individualise instruction, to create a positive affective climate in the classroom and to increase student motivation. The writers compared group work with lockstep teaching when they observed these benefits. They noticed that in lockstep instruction, the bulk of the lesson time was used by the teachers, whereas in group work half the time of the lesson was available for individual student talk. Also, group work provided students with opportunities to engage in cohesive and coherent sequences of utterances rather than isolated sentences (Kim 2004). It catered for individual differences, which was not possible in lockstep teaching, and the intimate setting provided by group work was more supportive than lockstep. Other advantages of group work include the opportunity to gather comprehensible input through negotiating meaning (Kinginger 1994, Long 1983b and Pica 1994) and receiving collective scaffolding from group members (Donato 1994 in Ellis 2000). Group work seems to work better with two-way activities, as shown in studies by Kasanga (1996a), Pica (1987) and Pica and Doughty (1985) than in one-way tasks, as in Gass and Varonis (1985).

The discussion in the next section focuses on the value of group work in content subjects in university tutorials. It also highlights some of the benefits reported by tutors and students that arise from participating in the tutorials.

2.2.1 The value of small group discussions

In some institutions of higher learning in South Africa and abroad, tutorials are used as interventions in courses with either a high failure rate, or where the students' performance is generally poor. For example, at the universities of the

Witwatersrand and Cape Town in South Africa, attending and participating in tutorials improved the performance of students in chemistry examination results (Huddle et al.1992). At the University of Cape Town, tutorials were conducted once a week for Chemistry 2 students by postgraduate research students. As a result of these tutorials, students' poor performance and throughput improved. The students' motivation in the tutorials was accelerated by the tutorial marks added to their overall course assessment. In a questionnaire, which students completed on their attitudes towards tutorials, they reported that tutorials gave them a chance to ask about things they did not understand in lectures, in tutorials they were able to think more about what they had done in lectures and they understood better what they were expected to do. Some of the responses from the questionnaires went as follows:

I found the tutorials extremely beneficial. They provided
very useful practice for the course material.

Tutorials are very helpful. I feel on top of my work because
I have to work every week.

Also, the course lecturers expressed satisfaction about the students' performance in the chemistry course after they had been attending the tutorial sessions. They reported that their students benefited in terms of improved subject matter from participating in tutorials. The tutors too expressed satisfaction with the students' performance in the tutorials.

Tutorials, as shown by the reports of the students, lecturers and tutors are important because they provide an environment in which students can work collaboratively. Understanding lecture materials, which is crucial at tertiary institutions, is also enhanced when students discuss their content material in small groups. The positive attitudes expressed in the responses of the students, tutors and lecturers about tutorials is valuable information, which further

strengthens the case for introducing tutorials at NWU, Mafikeng campus to improve students' participation effectiveness in lectures.

In Brewer (1977) at the University of Sydney, small group discussion was introduced to improve students' performance in Biological Sciences. The groups, which consisted of eight students on average, met once a week to do group slide viewing followed by independent written work and then a group discussion of answers, which involved suggestions for alternative answers, requests for opinions and clarification of difficulties. When the group agreed on acceptable answers to a particular question, they marked their papers. The feedback they received from their tutor was an effective learning experience. In evaluating the students' improved performance, Brewer (1977) reported the following positive results:

> Because students mark their own quiz papers, they leave the group
> each week with a definite idea of their own progress. For 80% of the
> students, their performance improves over the course: their
> self-assessment provides the intrinsic motivation to keep work up
> to date as well as to bolster self-esteem. (Brewer 1977:49)

This tutorial appears to be enriching in terms of subject matter as students through negotiation suggest alternative answers and are fully involved in the discussions and marking of their own papers.

At another Australian University, tutorials were introduced for first-year Biology students as an intervention to improve their performance (Smythe 1972). These tutorials were conducted by trained demonstrators, as one of the purposes of the study was to encourage students to take responsibility for their discussions and change their attitude of teacher-dependency. The author claims that the 'tutorials improved communication between the teacher and the students and the

researchers noticed an increase in feedback to staff about the successes and failures of their teaching methods' (Smythe 1972:157).

Although the focus of the tutorials reviewed above was to improve the students' understanding of the subject matter in courses where the failure rate was high, there were other benefits that the students gained from participating in the tutorials. For example, the findings revealed that students' motivation was accelerated by the tutorial mark added to their year mark and also by the progress they noticed after each tutorial. They also benefited in terms of effective participation, language development and development of group feeling. The teachers also benefited by receiving feedback about their teaching methods.

In the foregoing section, the focus was on the value of small group discussion in improving performance in academic courses with a high failure rate. The findings of the studies reviewed indicate that through active participation in the discussions students improve understanding of the subject matter and their motivation is also enhanced. In terms of the present study these findings therefore suggest that students who show higher levels of participation effectiveness should also develop better understanding of the subject matter of their tutorials.

2.2.2 Describing interaction in small group discussions

In this section, the analytical frameworks which have been used to analyse participation in classroom discourse are described. Part of the purpose of describing these analytical frameworks is to show the differences between those that were developed to analyse classroom discourse and those used to analyse talk in small group discussions.

Classroom discourse, for instance, is characterised more by teacher talk than student participation. This is because the bulk of talk in the classroom is teacher

dominated and Tichapondwa (2008) argues that teacher dominance stifles learner initiative. The teacher decides who gets the speech floor, when and for how long. In other words, turn-taking is rigidly controlled by the teacher (Graddol et al 1994). That might be the reason for De Klerk (1994) to describe all teacher turns as self-selected turns because the teacher is in full control of turn-taking. However, in small group discussion such as tutorials, turns are only regulated through allocations to avoid dominance by a few individuals.

A number of different analytical frameworks have been developed to describe interaction in classroom discourse. The three major descriptive systems, according to Coulthard (1974), are Bellack et al. (1966), Barnes (1968) and Flanders (1970 in Coulthard 1974:231). In this study, however, the focus will be on Bellack et al (1966), Flanders (1970) and Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). These have been selected for discussion because their categories have been adapted and used widely by other researchers (Coulthard 1974, Moskowitz 1971 in Chaudron 1988).

Bellack et al.'s (1966 in Coulthard 1974: 231) analytical framework is one of the earlier classroom interaction instruments. With its three categories, namely soliciting, responding and reacting moves, it was described, 'as the very fabric of classroom interaction' (Walsh 2006:41). Although it was criticised for not distinguishing between longer and shorter questions, it formed a useful basis for Coulthard's (1974) analytical framework. Bellack et al.'s (1966 in Coulthard 1974) framework was followed by Flanders' (1970) Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) with ten broad categories. It too was criticised, but for lack of consistency as some of its categories were crude and operated at different levels (Love 1991 in Tichapondwa 2008:62). Walsh (2006) criticised it for leaning heavily on teacher talk and only assigning two categories, that is response and initiation, to pupil talk. In spite of these criticisms, FIAC still influenced a number of researchers, among them Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), whose analytical framework was also designed for classroom discourse. Their discourse analytical

framework incorporated a discourse hierarchy consisting of a lesson (the largest unit), a transaction, an exchange, a move and an act. Interaction in Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) typical classroom exchange consisted of the following participation pattern: teacher initiation, learner response and teacher follow-up (I-R-F). The moves were segmented into acts, which denoted the functions they performed. This I-R-F cycle reflected teacher behaviour that tended to keep control over classroom discourse, because a student's reply was followed by the teacher's feedback in the form of an acknowledgement or another initiation. Van Lier (1984) describes classroom interaction in the following way:

> It is clear that in many classrooms, or at least at certain
> moments in many classrooms, equal rights of communication
> are suspended: the teacher decides who the next speaker
> is going to be, the next speaker responds to the call, and
> then the teacher takes over again, automatically. (Van Lier 1984:163)

The classroom scenario described by Van Lier reflects tightly controlled interaction. That is why the analytical instruments briefly discussed above are suitable for lockstep types of interaction, where turns are controlled by the teacher. Van Lier (1988) argues that in second language classrooms, where turn-taking is controlled by the teacher,

> the participants are no longer concerned with resolving transition
> and distribution problems, but rather with observing rules. At the
> same time this means that, because of the turn-taking rules,
> participants are restricted in their power and initiative to change
> and influence the discourse. (Van Lier 1988:105)

Classroom discourse instruments originally designed for lockstep interaction are therefore not adequate for describing tutorial talk, especially where the focus is not only on the frequency of participation, but also on participation effectiveness,

which incorporates the initiative of each participant at discourse act and turn-taking level. Seedhouse (1994) describes discourse analytical instruments as follows:

> The majority of systems of categorising and analysing classroom interaction which have been developed so far have been heavily biased towards what the teacher says and does, and the number of categories for learner behaviour are very limited. (Seedhouse 1994:308)

Indeed what is expressed by Seedhouse is true when one considers Bellack et al.'s (1966 in Coulthard 1974) framework, Flanders' (1970) Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) and Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) categories. It confirms what was said earlier about classroom discourse analytical frameworks. In almost all of them, there are more categories for teacher talk than pupil talk, which confirms that they were specifically designed for teacher-fronted classroom teaching and learning with the main focus on the amount of participation rather than quality. These frameworks made it possible for analysts to examine 'traditional patterns of classroom interaction rather than genuine interaction' (Nunan 1987 in Seedhouse 1994:305), which would also include students' initiative, an important aspect in spoken discourse such as tutorials. Nunan (1987 in Seedhouse 1994:305) in describing the genuineness of classroom interaction says,

> it is characterised by the uneven distribution of information, the negotiation of meaning, topic nomination and negotiation by more than one speaker, and the right of interlocutors to decide whether to contribute to an interaction or not. (Nunan 1987 in Seedhouse 1994:305)

The dynamic nature of interaction in tutorials requires not just the measurement of participation in terms of frequencies, but also in terms of participation effectiveness, which describes the involvement of each student in the interaction.

Even though the analytical systems discussed above have been adapted and used by many classroom researchers, they are not appropriate to describe tutorial talk in the present study because in tutorials 'learners are not wholly under the control of the teacher, they have some freedom concerning the nature and extent of their participation in class' (Allwright 1980 in De Klerk 1995:158) and that is how initiative is identified.

The analytical frameworks most relevant to the present study include those of Crombie (1985a), De Klerk (1994, 1995a), Hubbard (1998), Hunt (1997), MacDonald (1991), Powell (1974), Van Lier (1988) and Webb (1981, 1983).

The analytical frameworks developed by De Klerk (1994, 1995a) and Hunt (1997) were specifically designed for university tutorials. The main categories in both frameworks are external selection and self-selection. External selection refers to turns that occur either through nomination by name, gaze or formal constraint (i.e. filling a gap in the interaction if there is no answer to an open question), while self-selected turns are those that are initiated by the participants themselves in an interaction. This category is subdivided into valid selection, which is smooth speaker change and non-valid selection, which is an overlap. De Klerk's (1995b) analytical framework was used to investigate students' participation in racially mixed and gender-mixed tutorials. For example, in a study of 38 males and 23 females, the White male students had more turns than Black students and females. The Black students' poor performance in turn-taking was attributed to lack of familiarity with the turn-taking conventions. Bashiruddin et al. (1990) confirm that

> those for whom the current conventions are regarded as the norm will be
> at a distinct advantage, while those from foreign cultures because of their
> lack of familiarity with the norm will be less likely to utilise opportunities for
> participation. (Bashiruddin et al 1990 in De Klerk 1994:38)

The Black students' poor performance at turn-taking shows that it is a complex skill for second language learners, who may not have had the opportunity to 'practise vital skills involved in interacting in the target language' (Van Lier 1988:106). Van Lier argues that 'even if underlying turn-taking rules are universal, the ways in which they are realised socially, contextually, linguistically and behaviourally are manifestly very different in different languages and cultures' (Van Lier 1988:106).

In another study (De Klerk 1994), involving three females and six males, where the same analytical framework was used to investigate whether the perceived power of a tutor would have an impact on the participation patterns of students in a tutorial, De Klerk (1994) observed that the male students still outperformed the female students by getting more floor time and having longer turns. The female tutor who was in charge of one of the tutorial groups nominated more male students than the male tutor in his tutorial group. Even though the results are consistent with De Klerk (1995a, 1995b), the small sample in this study raises some concern about her findings. Her studies, however, focused on the amount of student participation, which is just one aspect of participation effectiveness investigated in the present study.

Another analytical framework used to investigate students' participation at tertiary level is Macdonald's Tutoring Interaction Codes (MTIC) (MacDonald 1991). Initially this framework had three moves, namely initiation, reply and evaluation, typical in classroom discourse (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975). When it was piloted, MacDonald realised that it could not sufficiently describe all the collected data. This led to the reanalysis of the data which then produced two additional categories, addition and marker, resulting in a five-code scheme. Addition was operationalised as an utterance that had not been initiated, but it clarified, illustrated, extended or elaborated the current topic, while a marker was realised by words such as, *OK, right.*

When the five-part framework was applied to four tutorials in MacDonald's data, 54 percent of the moves were classified as initiation, reply or evaluation, while the rest were either additions or markers. These results indicated that there were two learning processes occurring simultaneously. The first resembled classroom discourse, with a rigid turn-taking pattern as participation was characterised by initiation, reply and evaluation. The second allowed for more student initiative through the use of additions to support explanations and also to expand the students' contributions. The use of additions and markers in the four tutorials reflected the quality of the tutorial talk, which would have been overlooked had they not formed part of MacDonald's analytical framework. Also, piloting and revising the analytical framework contributed to refining it and enabling the researcher to capture the kind of discourse the students used to sustain the interaction and move it forward, which could not have occurred if the framework had only initiation, reply and evaluation categories, which resemble the I-R-F cycle common in traditional classroom discourse.

Powell (1974) also developed an analytical framework to analyse verbal participation in tutor-led tutorials and to examine the feasibility of running leaderless tutorials in university teaching. To get a sample for his study, he had to persuade both students and tutors about the purpose of his work. He ended up with a small number of leaderless tutorials because staff members were unwilling to give up their teaching role entirely. His tutorial groups had between seven and eleven members and these are big groups if we judge them by the numbers Pastoll (1992) recommends for a tutorial. The leaderless tutorials, which met twice a week, were given a lot of guidance in the form of questions and other stimulus material for discussion and could appoint a chairperson if they wished. The tutorials with tutors were not given any instruction as to how they were to conduct the tutorials. Each member's participation score was calculated as a percentage of the total amount of speech and a mean percentage score was derived from these to indicate each member's level of verbal participation in all the tutorials. The second analysis involved exploring the cognitive activities in the

group discussion, using a system which was modified several times before including the following categories: giving an opinion, giving information, arguing, asking for information, clarifying, formulating problems and group processes.

The categories in Powell's framework were many. Although it is sometimes claimed that the larger the number of categories, the more detailed the information, the opposite is also true. There is also a possibility of overlaps between the categories. Webb's (1981:65) comment that 'the larger the number of categories, the more difficult the instrument becomes to use and the more arbitrary the assignment of talk into the categories', is therefore true when considering Powell's remark below about his system.

> The category system was devised in order to throw light on the general
> character of what is said in tutorial discussions and it must be admitted
> that it is a far from perfect instrument and generates more problems than
> it resolves. (Powell 1974:167)

The results of Powell's analysis revealed that most of the talking (a mean of 58%) in the tutorials was done by the tutors. This implies that very little time was left for individual students to interact. This finding is similar to Webb (1983) where tutors took 61% of the total tutorial time, leaving the first-year students with only 39%. However, in groups which alternated tutored and leaderless tutorials, there was more student participation. Powell (1974) says: 'in most cases the students increased their participation scores quite considerably when the tutor was absent: in some cases they said nearly five times as much' (Powell 1974: 165).

When Powell interviewed 30 university staff members about what made a good tutorial, the three most frequently mentioned characteristics were that all members participate, students argue among themselves and all students ask questions. The responses by staff members confirmed some of the things that

were reported by lecturers and tutors in response to Davidowitz and Rollnick (2005) interview questions about tutorials. The staff members in Powell (1974) reported positively about tutorials, yet at the beginning of his study, there was a lot of unwillingness on the part of most of them to participate as tutors and also to give up their lecture time for leaderless tutorials.

The studies by MacDonald (1991) and Powell (1974) have shown clearly that developing an analytical framework requires piloting before finalising the categories as well as the operational definitions. The process is completed only when the categories in the framework describe the collected data adequately. It should also be noted that a framework with relatively fewer categories can work effectively, as is the case in my study. The findings in these studies have indicated the benefits of analysing data using categories that are not too specific. In MacDonald (1991), the richness of the tutorial talk was captured because of the inclusion of addition and marker to the initial framework after it had been piloted. These two categories helped to discriminate between the varying patterns of the interaction by the students and their tutor.

Powell's (1974) contribution in terms of organising and running tutorials is also very important, as it shows that even though staff might not show interest in tutorials, particularly if they are not sure of the benefits to be derived from them, when they realise the effectiveness of the tutorial system in improving learners' performance, there seems to be a change of attitude. However, this depends on how well organised the tutorials are.

Webb (1981) developed a four category system to analyse group work. Because it had only four categories, namely response, questioning, initiation and silence, he called it a blunt instrument. He described it as consistent, not very susceptible to bias from use by different people, easy to understand and informative. In a year-long study (Webb 1983), where this system was applied to first and third-year undergraduate Geography tutorials with four tutors to explore the students'

participation patterns, the analysis done by assigning tutorial talk to the four categories revealed that the tutors monopolised an average of 61percent of the tutorial time and the first-year students' talk time amounted to only 20 percent, but the third-year students' talk time increased to 31 percent. This result, however, does not mean that the tutors reduced their talking time, but the third-year students talked more than the tutors. This finding is similar to Powell's tutored tutorials, where most of the talking time was taken by the tutors, but in leaderless tutorials, the students' talking time doubled. The comment made by Webb's students that they did not see any difference in the behaviour they were called upon to produce in the tutorials is not surprising because tutor behaviour, especially at first-year with very little talk time, was not different from what happened in their lectures. The bulk of the questions were asked by the lecturers and the students had no time to ask questions, or even interact with the tutors. To increase students' talking time in the tutorials, Webb (1983) suggested that the students be provided with source materials well in advance so that no time is wasted during the tutorials. He also suggested that the students be grouped according to their abilities to gain confidence and increase participation, the size of these groups were to be kept small to allow every member to participate and more leaderless sessions were to be conducted. He believed that these suggestions would release more than half the tutorial time for student discussion. These are good suggestions even though they would have to be adapted to suit different learning conditions.

Reviewing studies by MacDonald (1991), Powell (1974) and Webb (1981, 1983) has provided valuable insights for the present study. Thus MacDonald (1991), for instance, showed how useful it can be to pilot an analytical framework, which led him to extend the framework with two extra categories and so describe his data more adequately. Also, the successful use by all three of these researchers of frameworks with relatively few categories provided some support for the present study, which also employs a small number of categories. Powell's (1974) interviews with tutors to get feedback about the tutorials is also important, as they

reveal that it is possible for lecturers to change their attitude towards running tutorials once they realise the benefits the students stand to gain. Webb's (1983) suggestions of supplying reference material well in advance, running leaderless tutorials to enhance student participation and increase their talking time are important, especially where tutors tend to dominate the tutorial discussions.

Before reviewing the analytical frameworks of Hubbard (1998) and Van Lier (1988), from which the analytical framework for this study was developed, it is important to understand how the term 'initiative' is applied. Allwright (1980) and Seliger (1983) define initiative in terms of type of involvement displayed by a learner, i.e. whether the contribution was initiated by that learner or did not because it was made in response to an external selection or specific allocation to the learner, while Van Lier (1988) suggested that initiative was manifested in the interplay between prospective and retrospective turns. The former refers to the way the current turn is linked to the subsequent turn. For example, a 'tutor elicit' is prospective in that it influences a student's response, while a retrospective turn is linked to a previous turn. The following are Van Lier's (1988) turn categories: self-selection, allocation, sequence, topic change and non-initiative category (i.e. a turn allocated to speakers who don't then allocate to others). In the present study, initiative is construed in similar ways to Van Lier's (1988) model except that in my adapted version topic change was excluded (see § 3.5.1) as an initiative category and initiative was measured at discourse act as well as turn-taking levels.

Self-selection refers to a turn that originates when speakers take turns on their own initiative and very often this is done as a response to a general solicit as in the case of Tony and Maria's turns below (the names of students in the thesis are pseudonyms). The turns of the two students show that they did not wait for the tutor to give them turns, but they took the initiative to respond to the tutor's open elicit.

Excerpt 1-T301

[Self-selection][1]Tutor: Can you try maybe to…to answer individually those
three steps in an attempt to answer the whole question.
Firstly, is there any individual who can try to highlight the
principles that are expected from the Christians as an
introduction to the question?

[Self-selection][2]Tony: What is expected from the Christians?

[Self-selection][3]Maria: We are expected to believe in God, not
to commit adultery, to behave in a good manner and not to kill.

The two students' turns show initiative because they respond to the tutor's question of their own accord. As the selection to speak was initiated by the participants themselves in the interaction, this provides an affirmative response to Van Lier's (1988:125) initiative defining question, 'Does selection to speak originate from this speaker?' Van Lier (1988:111) states that

when a general solicit is made, all or any of the participants can choose
to answer. There is initiative on the part of the students involved, and
potentially several participants may take a turn simultaneously.

Allocation, on the other hand, occurs when the current speaker specifies a speaker for the next turn either through nomination (i.e. verbally selecting the next speaker by name), pointing or eye gaze, as in the illustration below, where the speaker for the next turn is specified by name. In [52] Mpho is allocated the turn, therefore no turn-taking initiative is assigned to him.

Excerpt 2-T311

[Allocation][51]Tutor: Let's start with Mpho.

[52]Mpho: I don't think a child that's been locked up in a room

would acquire language because in language acquisition…

[Allocation][53]Tutor: We can't hear you, Mpho.

[Sequence][54]Mpho: You acquire language.

Topic change refers to a turn that introduces something new or raises an objection that influences the direction of an ongoing discussion (Van Lier 1988:125). Van Lier (1988) acknowledges that 'deciding on the newness of a topic is always a matter of degree and therefore intuitive judgment must be applied'. The subjectivity in Van Lier's definition underlines the seriousness of the problem when it comes to coding for initiative, as in turn[24] below:

Excerpt 3-T111

[Sequence][22] Didimas: Because he was older than the others and he couldn't

call him…

[Sequence][23]Tutor: And of course the other prisoners were younger than

Briel. He seems to be the only family man, from what

we have been told in the story.

[Self-selection][24]Dorothy: I want clarification here about the behaviour of…

I mean their emotions, when they…in welcoming

this new warder. It says in line 1-3, paragraph 3,

first page, 'Yes a simple primitive brutal soul', I just

want to understand**…**

[Sequence][25]Tutor: **…** what do you want to understand?

[Sequence][26]Dorothy: The behaviour of the prisoners./how they welcome

or how they feel about this man a simple, primitive

brutal soul?'

If turn [24] is read in conjunction with [23] and [25], it is clear that the student wants clarity rather than introducing something new to the discussion. It is such cases which make analysing topic change for initiative more subjective than self-selection and allocation. As the purpose of coding turns is to decide whether they are initiative bearing or not, a turn such as that of Dorothy still manifests initiative as it is a self-selection.

Van Lier (1988:125) defines his fourth initiative-bearing turn category, 'sequence', as a turn that forms part of a sequence of turns. It is not very clear whether the intervening turns in between the first and closing turns are from one or more speakers when he says 'if it is a first part and a closing part, more than two turns long'. Van Lier (1988) does not specify the exact number of turns that can occur before the initial speaker selects the next turn in order to be described as a sequence. As will be seen in Chapter 3, the present study attempts to use a somewhat clearer and more objective definition.

Although it might be argued that Van Lier's procedure was based on intuitive judgment, it nevertheless provided important guidelines on how to code and quantify initiative bearing turns in an interaction. His identifying non-initiative-bearing turns (i.e. all turns which were not self-selections, allocations, topic changes and sequences) contributed considerably to the description of quality of the students' participation effectiveness, as it distinguished between initiative-bearing and non-initiative-bearing turns.

This coding scheme was later used by Kinginger (1994:30) to investigate participation in four French classes of students assigned to do different tasks. In task one, with an explicit focus on form and prespecified language, three students were involved. Two of them asked and answered a series of questions

on conversation cards to allow practice of new vocabulary. A third learner checked the accuracy of the questions posed using a card displaying the same question in French. The results of this task showed that only the learner who was doing the checking was able to influence the organisation of talk on self-selection, allocation and sequencing. As far as topic change was concerned, there was very little initiative as the focus was on working out the rules of the task. In task two, the learners imagined a context and wrote a dialogue around a sentence stimulus. Task three was a convergent task with the focus on the exchange of meaning. The final task was a free conversation intended to determine the type of interaction that would occur if the learners had an opportunity to talk informally.

The learners' degree of initiative in all four tasks varied because of the nature of these tasks. For example, in task one and two, participation was constrained by the task of asking and answering questions. In task three, although the bulk of the discussion did not relate to the set task (as learners did a lot of socialising); there was a high number of self-selected turns and topic changes. Similarly, in task four learners displayed very high initiative levels in all four categories because there was no limit on topic development and sequences. Also, the nature of the task encouraged natural discourse. Kinginger (1994) related the learners' high level of initiative in task four to the fact that there was no topic restriction inherent in the task, thus making the discussion more conversation-like. Kinginger's (1994) findings are illuminating because they show that the type of task can largely determine the pattern of participation and they can also limit or enhance the quality of learner initiative. They also reveal that focusing on form, as in task one, stifles learner initiative.

In the present study, then, a selection of Van Lier's (1988) categories are used to quantify students' turns and evaluate initiative, which is just one aspect of participation effectiveness, i.e. turn-taking. In Hubbard (1998), initiative as well as participation was measured within turns in terms of different discourse acts

performed by the students, namely counter-informs, comments, informs, replying-informs, and acknowledges. These acts derive from Crombie's (1985a) eliciting, informing and acknowledging moves. The complete framework for the present study, described in detail in Chapter 3, draws from both Hubbard's and Van Lier's work, but it integrates aspects of both by exploring participation and initiative at turn-taking and discourse act levels in combination.

In Hubbard (1998) the discourse acts were used to code and segment students' utterances into functional-units, which encompass clauses and non-clausal expressions that are functionally equivalent to clauses. They provided a more appropriate measurement in terms of participation effectiveness at discourse act level than a sentence, which is very problematic for spoken data (e.g. Foster et al. 2000:360), a clause or T-unit, which has also been seen as inadequate to deal with a full analysis of spoken discourse (Hubbard 1989; Tarone 1985 and Young 1995 in Foster et al. 2000:360). The functional-unit used in Hubbard (1998) originates from Lieber (1981 in Hubbard 1989:119-121), where it was applied to written discourse, but in Hubbard (1998) it was applied to spoken discourse to measure students' participation in terms of various discourse acts (counter-informs, comments, informs, reply-informs and acknowledges) performed by the students.

 As the quantitative measurement did not distinguish between the different types of discourse acts in a more qualitative way, a second analytical construct, a cline of initiative, was postulated. In the cline, counter-informs were placed at the top as these acts were perceived to reveal the most initiative because of their evaluative nature and their capacity for introducing new information (Hubbard 1998:662). Then in order of assumed degree of initiative, the rest were comments, informs, reply-informs and acknowledges. Further information on Crombie (1985a), Hubbard (1998) and Lieber (1981) will be provided later (§ 3.5.2), where an attempt is made to delineate the categories more fully.

Hubbard (1998) used the discourse act framework in a study of Grade 7 learners in Germany to compare the performance of a class of English foreign language partial immersion students (they were taught history for three hours a week through the medium of English rather than German) and two classes of non-immersion students on a discourse task. The task involved reading a passage and then discussing how to solve the problem of one character in the passage, who had broken her leg while on a camping trip. The quantitative measurement focused on the amount of discourse contributed by the learners, the mean length of their utterances and the degree of initiative in their utterances. The results showed that the immersion group used the highest number of discourse acts and also had the highest mean length of turn in terms of number of acts per turn. The immersion group also did better than the non-immersion groups in terms of the cline of initiative, making much more use of counter-informs and comments. Although the sample in this study was small, the findings indicated the value of even partial immersion in one content subject in improving learner participation in terms of the quantity and quality of their discourse performance. Non-immersion groups did not benefit much in terms of quality of expression, as indicated by the number of reply-informs and acknowledges which indicate very little initiative in terms of Hubbard's (1998) cline.

Hubbard's (1998) study is an important source for the present one. The discourse acts, which also form part of the integrated framework of this study, were ranked by him on a cline of initiative and they provided the main measures, for analysing the total number of discourse acts generated by the students, the mean length of their turns and the degree of initiative. One difference between his study and the present one is that in this one an attempt is made to test empirically, in at least a preliminary manner, the validity of the cline of initiative, using tutors to rate students' responses. All this is discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

2.3 Student and tutor gender as variables in discourse interaction

In this section, studies on interaction between males and females in learning environments are briefly reviewed to see how gender affects their participation in mixed-gender interactions. Then the discussion moves to tutor gender to see how it too affects the participation of male and female students in interactions. Student and tutor gender are variables which are examined in this study.

2.3.1 Student gender and interaction

Gender studies have repeatedly shown that women tend to be more easily interrupted, talk less and are dominated by males in mixed-gender interactions (Brooks 1982; Coates and Cameron 1988; De Klerk 1994, 1995a; West 1979; West and Zimmerman 1977). In studies reported by Zimmerman and West (1975) and Zimmerman (1977), the male conversational partners frequently interrupted women. Also in West (1979), participants paired with partners of the other sex they were not acquainted with showed that males initiated 75 percent of the interruptions. The reason for this kind of behaviour could be that women participants do not 'put up a fight' (West 1979) and are thus perceived as submissive and powerless. Even at meetings and other professional settings, Sadker and Sadker (1986) observed that males exhibited more powerful behaviours than their female counterparts and women's comments were more likely to be ignored, whatever their status.

Studies on classroom interaction by Sadker and Sadker (1984, 1986) have also shown consistently that male students from elementary to high school and beyond interact more than female students in all subjects. The researchers observed that the same patterns established in elementary and high school continued in higher education, irrespective of 'whether the teacher was Black or White, female or male; the pattern remained the same' (Sadker and Sadker 1986:512). Male students received more attention than the female students.

Females, on the other hand, did not take opportunities to call out as males did. Teachers also contributed to the male students' better performance by accepting the boys' answers whenever they called out and directing precise feedback to them, but when girls called out, teachers remediated their behaviour and advised them to raise their hands. The findings seem to suggest that the attention received by the male students from both male and female teachers tended to encourage male dominance in these interactions.

Similar findings were reported by Morse and Handley (1985 in Smith 1991), who found that females initiated fewer interactions with their teachers than males. Also, in a study by Sternglanz and Lyberger-Ficek (1977), which involved 870 female and 1414 male students and 33 male and 11 female teachers of non-science classes and 16 males teaching the natural science classes, it was found that the male students had more frequent and longer interactions with their teachers than did females. Further evidence is provided by She (2000), who investigated the relationships between teacher beliefs, teaching practices and gender based student-teacher interaction in a seventh grade biology classroom in Taiwan and discovered that boys were much more active in discussions and participated much more than their female classmates. Girls were passive, participating through eye contact or nodding their heads in agreement. Data in this study were coded according to teacher-initiated, teacher-student interaction and student-initiated teacher-student interaction. When the teacher was interviewed before and after the observation, she believed that boys tended to focus on major concepts instead of memorising facts and were more creative than girls. It was also noticed that she directed boys to answer more questions than girls. Her beliefs in science and gender differences influenced her class practice. In this study, teacher behaviour strongly influenced the way the male students participated.

The studies on student gender reviewed in this section show that male students participate better than the female students in terms of turn-taking and this

practice seems to be common from elementary through to higher education. What also comes out clearly in the findings is the biased behaviour of the teachers towards the girls. Males tend to receive more attention than females, and are thus perceived as assertive. By focusing on the males and allowing them more talk time than the females, this bias is encouraged.

In the next section, the focus is on how the gender of the tutor influences students' participation in interactions.

2.3.2 Tutor gender and student interaction

In mixed-gender classes conducted by male and female tutors, different observations were made regarding the performance by male and female students. The possible reason, as pointed out by Duffy et al (2001:582) could be that 'male students respond to, or initiate interaction with teachers more than do female students.' In a study that investigated whether high school classroom interactions were related to the gender of both teachers and the students, and to the academic subject being taught, using a modified Sadker et al. (1984) INTERSECT observational instrument with the following categories: initiation, receiver, gender of teacher or students, method, evaluative type and evaluative content, it was found that mathematics, language and literature male and female teachers directed more interactions toward male students. Also, in Sadker (1986) and Sadker et al. (1984) similar findings were reported.

Similarly in Smith (1991), where Sadker and Sadker's (1984) observational instrument was also used with 63 teachers from 19 vocational high schools, it was found that the female teachers interacted more with male students than with female students. The male teachers, on the other hand, tended to be equitable in their interactions with male and female students. In yet another study (Duff et. al 2001) it was observed that the female teachers showed a greater tendency than the male teachers to interact more with male than female students. Unlike in

Smith (1991), the differences in the interactions with the male and female students depended on the subject being taught. For instance, the male mathematics teachers interacted equally with the male and female students, while the female mathematics teachers, the male literature and language teachers and female literature and language teachers interacted more with male students than with female students.

In a study (Canada and Pringle 1995) of mixed-gender as well as single-gender classes led by female and male professors, different participation patterns were observed. The number of professor elicits accepted was greater for mixed-gender classes led by female professors than for mixed-gender classes led by male professors. In single-gender classrooms, female students initiated interactions in a manner and level equivalent to that of the male students in mixed-gender classrooms. These findings indicate that the behaviours of both male and female students in mixed-gender classes are related to the proportion of male students as well as the gender of the professor. They also suggest that the presence of males within a group tends to influence the way the females behave.

In another large-scale study, consisting of 466 males, 476 females, 15 male professors (6 science, 9 non-science), and 15 female professors (5 science, 10 non-science), Boersma et al. (1981) investigated classroom verbal behaviour in relation to subject matter, gender of student and gender of teacher. The researchers' analytical instrument had the following seven categories: sex of speaker, type of speaker (i.e. student or teacher), length of comment (determined by a stop watch), type of comment, sequence of comments, beginning and end of interaction and 'praise'(*a verbal expression of positive judgement, e.g., 'good', 'excellent', 'interesting'*, Boersma et al.777). The findings of this study showed that in female-taught non-science classes, the male students made proportionally more comments than females, asked more than one question and interacted with female teachers more than the female students. As far as teacher behaviour is

concerned, female teachers provided longer responses to female students than male students, but praises were given by 11 teachers , which is only 27% of the teachers.

In De Klerk (1994:45), when the male tutor was in charge, there was more conformity to the norms of turn-taking, confirming once more that the perceived power of the seminar leader has an impact on how students participate in interaction. De Klerk's study is more relevant to the present study in that it provides an interesting comparison in terms of participation patterns between males and females in a homogenous group, such as the one in this study.

In all the studies on student and teacher gender reviewed above, the main focus was on the frequency or amount of participation. The findings have revealed that male students from elementary grades through to institutions of higher learning outperform female students even when the females outnumber the males. These findings have been observed (Canada and Pringle 1995) in science and non-science classes taught by male and female teachers. It was also observed that different treatments given by male and female teachers to the students influenced the way they participated. For example, the belief that males are more active than females influenced the teachers' behaviour towards the males. Thus they received more attention than the females. In the present study, however, the focus is on differences in participation effectiveness between males and females in university tutorials run by male and female tutors.

2.4 Tutor discourse behaviour

Tutor Discourse Behaviour in the present study refers to the discourse the tutor uses to influence students' participation effectiveness, which incorporates participation in terms of the number of discourse acts and turns and the degree of initiative at discourse act and turn-taking level. Tichapondwa (2008) describes

tutor discourse as effective talk, which may influence students' participation in an interaction.

One of the features of effective educational talk identified by Fisher (1996) is turn-taking, which according to Van Lier (1988:105) is a 'complex skill that involves monitoring an ongoing construction of a current turn, while at the same time assessing one's opportunities to take the floor and, if possible, actively planning what to do once the floor is obtained.' In Fisher's (1996) study, where she expected educational talk to be topic focused, she noticed that turn-taking skills as well as comprehensible tasks contributed to successful student communication. She then concluded that if topics were to be explored through discourse, it was necessary for speakers to build on the talk of the previous speaker (Fisher 1996:237) through questions and responses, which are identified as an important teaching technique in a teaching and learning environment. Brown (2001 in Siposova 2007:34) lists the following functions that are fulfilled by teacher questions:

> they 'give students the impetus and opportunity to produce
> language comfortably without having to risk initiating language
> themselves; they can serve to initiate a chain reaction of student
> interaction among themselves; they provide immediate feedback
> about student comprehension and opportunities to find out what
> they think by hearing what they say.

These functions emphasise the importance of teacher questions in facilitating and sustaining effective student participation. Research has shown that different types of questions posed by teachers contribute differently to communication in the classroom. For example, open referential questions tend to generate extended student responses, 'they provide learners with more opportunities of interactions at advanced level of thinking and encourage learners to participate actively in their learning for producing more language output' (Tuan et al.

2010:33) because they are open and divergent. Closed display questions, on the other hand, are those questions for which the teacher already knows the answer and because they normally focus on factual information rather than communicative use of the language, they produce very short responses. Tuan et al. (2010:33) describe closed display question as

> the kind of question asked for comprehension checks, confirmation
> check or clarification requests. It generates interactions that are
> typical of didactic discourse. (Tuan and Nhu 2010:33)

Open referential questions, on the other hand, because of being divergent and open (Maley 2009; Suter 2001), require a higher level of thinking from the learners (Da 2009; Lynch 1991) than closed display questions to which the questioner already knows the answers and the students are also more likely to know the answers. In discourse analyses of EFL classes the definitions of open referential and closed display questions seem to provide a clear distinction between the two types, while in tutorials, because of the complexity of the discourse, there are few exact responses expected by tutors and therefore closed display questions tend to function as closed referential questions.

The different functions of teacher questions have resulted in different question categorisations. For example, Long and Sato's (1983) framework adapted from Kearsley (1976 in Long and Sato 1983) had a total of seven categories, which were open referential, closed display, comprehension checks, clarification requests and confirmation checks. These categories were used to code the speech of 36 native speakers of English and 36 non-native speakers in an exploratory study of forms and functions of teachers' questions in ESL teacher speech and the speech of native speakers in informal native versus non-native conversation outside classrooms. The results showed that the six teachers involved in the study asked significantly more closed display questions during ESL instruction than open referential questions. There were also more closed

display questions than open referential questions in informal conversations between natives and non-native speakers.

Long and Sato's (1983) framework was applied by Brock (1986) when she investigated whether higher frequencies of open referential questions had an effect on adult ESL classroom discourse. She had predicted that with training in the formation and use of these questions, the teachers would ask more of them in the classroom than teachers who did not receive training; a greater number of open referential questions would be accompanied by a greater number of echoic questions (i.e. confirmation checks and clarification requests) by the teacher and the learners' responses to the open referential questions would have a greater number of connectives. This study consisted of two treatment and two control groups with two teachers for each of the groups. As predicted, the teachers in the treatment group asked more open referential questions than closed display questions, while those in the control group asked more closed display questions and very few open referential questions. Also, the mean length of learner turns in response to open referential questions was longer than the mean length in response to closed display questions. There were also confirmation checks in the control group which occurred after responses to closed display questions, but the total number of clarification requests made by the teachers in both groups was the same. In terms of connectors, the treatment group used far more connectors (e.g. *and, because, yet, so*) in their turns than the control group. This is expected as they had longer turns in response to open referential questions.

In other EFL studies, for example, the large number of open referential questions resulted in greater student involvement (Suter 2001 and Tichapondwa 2008); offered more opportunities for language practice in the Limited English Proficiency classroom and elicited more extensive student turns (Long et al 1984 in Hung 2004:10). Closed displays questions, on the other hand, by focusing on accuracy of students' contribution rather than on their appropriateness produced short responses and encouraged interaction patterns that resembled the I-R-F

cycle (Tichapondwa 2008). Although this participation pattern tends to stifle learner initiative, especially in classroom discourse (Cullen 1998), and does not allow for complex ways of communicating between the teacher and students (Hall and Walsh 2002), some studies have revealed that it can extend students' participation in class discussion, but only if teacher follow-ups invite students to expand and qualify their initial responses (Wells 1993 in Hall 1998; Nassaji and Wells 2000 in Hall; Tuan and Nhu 2010, Walsh 2002) by asking students further questions which expand on their thinking, clarify their opinions and make connections to their own experiences. This pattern of interaction enhances opportunities for learning. Wells (1993 in Hall, Walsh 2002:190) after inspecting the I-R-F pattern of interaction, and noticing that it could enhance participation and learning if it is used to benefit the students, concluded

> that the typical three-part interaction exchange found in classrooms
> is neither wholly good nor wholly bad. Instead, it can only be evaluated
> by looking at how it unfolds moment-to-moment on particular classroom
> contexts.

The other characteristic of effective teacher discourse highlighted is content feedback intended to improve the appropriacy of learners contributions to a task under discussion. This is done through comprehension checks, confirmation checks and clarification requests to facilitate comprehension and sustain interaction.

The studies discussed above show that using open referential questions does not only produce extended and coherent responses, but also foster active student participation, which is one of the objectives of the present study.

2.5 Conjunctive cohesion

Another important aspect of participation effectiveness that this study seeks to explore is the relationship between the total number of discourse acts and turns, the degree of initiative at discourse act and turn-taking levels and the density of certain features of cohesion, as possible indicators of quality in spoken discourse.

The studies reviewed below focused on conjunctive cohesion in students' written work. In this study, however, the focus is on students' spoken discourse and an attempt is therefore made to establish whether high densities of certain use of discontinuatives and causatives are also characteristics of the spoken language of students whose discourse performance in terms of the other measures used in this study is superior. Thus the section below, briefly reviews studies which have been done on cohesion and coherence in students' academic writing. The types of conjunctives that are measured are certain discontinuatives (i.e. Concession-Contraexpectation, e.g. *Although*, Contrast, e.g. *But*) and causatives (i.e. Condition-Consequence e.g. *If* and Reason-Result, e.g. *because, so that, in order that*). These have been selected because discontinuatives in Hubbard (1989) and causatives in Ramasawmy (2004) occurred frequently in high-rated student essays and thus correlated with good academic writing.

Cohesion is defined by De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981 in Hubbard 1989:19) as 'the way in which components of the surface text, i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are mutually connected within a sequence.' The word 'text', in Halliday and Hasan (1976), refers to any discourse; spoken or written of whatever length that forms a unified whole held together by grammatical and lexical devices. The grammatical devices include subcategories of reference, substitution and ellipsis, while the lexical devices consist of reiteration and collocation.

Since the publication of Halliday and Hasan (1976), which indicated how the grammatical and lexical devices make a text hang together, many studies have focused on cohesion and coherence in students' writing (rather than speaking as in my study), as these have been identified as major aspects of textuality (Carrell 1982, Connor 1985, Fahnestock 1983, Johns 1986, Khalil 1989, Khu 1995, Hubbard 1998, Ramasawmy 2004 and Witte and Faigley 1981).

Khalil (1989), for example, measured both cohesion and coherence in 20 compositions written by Arab EFL College students. The compositions were first evaluated for coherence, then rank ordered from the most coherent to the least coherent. The findings indicated that the writers of the most coherent composition expanded the main topic and made good use of cohesive ties such as *therefore*, *also, as* and *for* to link the main topic with the subtopics. The writers of the least coherent composition, on the other hand, provided poor elaboration of the main topic and subtopics without backing them up. When the relationship of cohesion to coherence was tested a weak positive correlation (r=0.18) between cohesive ties and the coherence score was found.

Connor (1985) examined six argumentative essays written by four ESL students and two native speakers of English to determine the relationship between cohesion and coherence. Features of cohesion and coherence in ESL learners' writing were compared with the writing of native English speakers. Cohesion was measured using Halliday and Hasan's (1976) grammatical and lexical categories, while coherence was measured using holistic ratings. The density of cohesion was not found to be a discriminating factor between the native speakers and ESL learners. There were no significant differences in the use of cohesive ties per T-unit between ESL and native speakers. There was a relatively high frequency of lexical cohesion in all four essays of the ESL learners, but there was no real difference in the use of reference or conjunction between the ESL learners and the native speakers. The differences noticed in the use of types of lexical cohesion between native and non-native speakers are similar to Witte and

Faigley's (1981) results, which revealed that the writers of the high rated essays used more lexical collocations than did the writers of low-rated essays, who used lexical reiteration in more instances. They also found that the high rated essays had more cohesion than the low-rated essays, as in Khalil (1989) and Ramasawmy (2004). Unlike Khalil (1989), Connor's study had a very small sample, which makes it difficult to generalise her findings.

The studies reviewed above examined cohesion in general in the students' academic writing, using Halliday and Hasan's (1976) categories. In the next section, Hubbard (1989) and Ramasawmy (2004), which are more relevant to the present study, are considered.

In Hubbard (1989), data were obtained from English Literature and Linguistics university examination answer scripts selected from three language groups. The scripts were first assessed by three raters on a four-point scale and then divided into high, middle and low ratings. In analysing these texts, they were first segmented into F-units and then examined to establish, among other things, if the density of conjunctive cohesion features might discriminate more effectively between the highest and lowest rated groups of texts. In terms of reference cohesion, there was no difference in performance between the high and low-rated texts, but with regard to conjunctive cohesion ANOVA tests revealed a statistically very significant relationship ($p \leq 0.01$) between texts' coherence ratings and their densities of discontinuative conjunctives (e.g. *nevertheless*). This applied to both the Linguistics and English Literature examination answers. From this finding, Hubbard concluded that

> the frequent use of discontinuative relations, signalled usually by
> conjunctives, promotes processing depth on the part of the reader,
> and so makes for more effective and more coherent student academic
> writing. (Hubbard 1989:257)

The other finding with regard to conjunctives that applied to both sets of examination answers was a significant (p≤0.05) relationship between Concession-Contraexpectation conjunctives (e.g. *though* or *although*) and coherence ratings.

Another study which investigated the extent to which certain cohesion features correlated with students' writing quality was conducted by Ramasawmy (2004). He used Crombie's (1985b) set of interpropositional general semantic relations in the same way as Hubbard (1989). His subjects were high school learners who had been asked to write narrative and expository essays which were rated by two teachers. The semantic relations in the analytic framework of Ramasawmy (2004) derived from Crombie (1985b) were applied in the same way as in Hubbard (1989).The results showed that the high-rated essays in the narrative and the expository texts, had six discontinuatives each. When the conjunctive cohesion was tested, it was found to be related to writing quality in the expository texts, but not the narrative texts.

These findings stimulated my interest to explore in the present study a possible similar relationship between the density of the use of discontinuatives and aspects of quantity and quality of students' spoken discourse in another academic context, the tutorial.

2.6 Conclusion

The objectives of the present chapter were to review research and related literature on interaction and initiative, to examine analytical frameworks used to analyse interaction and also to review studies on cohesion in academic writing. For successful interaction, it was shown that there had to be input that would be understood by the interactants. Claims had been made that with sufficient exposure to comprehensible input, acquisition occurred automatically (Krashen and Terrell 1983). In addition to comprehensible input, it was shown that

negotiated interaction was essential in negotiating solutions through comprehension checks, confirmation checks and clarification requests. Long (1981) argued that second language acquisition was promoted if the learners had opportunities to use the language in information exchange tasks. These opportunities were available in two-way tasks or information gap activities. Research on the two-way activities revealed that all members in a group participated actively in the discussions because each one of them possessed some piece of information not known to, but needed by all other participants to complete the task. However, in one-way activities, research findings repeatedly showed that only the dominant students tended to benefit from the interaction. Further research revealed that learners also needed to produce language in order to progress. One of the leading researchers who made claims that producing language facilitated acquisition was Swain (1984). In her Output Hypothesis, she postulated that producing language, especially when learners experienced difficulties in communicating their intended messages successfully, pushed them to make their output more precise and coherent and this process contributed to second language acquisition. Subsequent research on the Output Hypothesis also confirmed that feedback given to the learners enabled them to notice knowledge gaps and to modify their output.

The review also looked at the benefits of group work, which indicated that it enhanced comprehension of content subjects, encouraged participation, improved language proficiency and encouraged collaboration among students. These benefits were also confirmed by the lecturers and tutors who were interviewed about the effectiveness of the tutorial system. Another aspect of the review was the frameworks used to analyse classroom discourse and those that were used to describe participation patterns in small group discussions. The classroom discourse frameworks with their predominance of teacher categories over student categories were deemed not suitable to analyse tutorials in the present study because they did not make provision for student initiative, which was identified as an aspect of effective participation. Other analytical frameworks

reviewed were those of Hubbard (1998) and Van Lier (1988) and certain categories from these analytical frameworks form the framework discussed in detail in the next chapter.

Another important aspect relevant to my study that was reviewed was the influence of student and tutor gender on student participation in interactions. Different studies conducted in different places indicated that males tended to outperform females. Even where the males were outnumbered, they still did better than the females. Some studies, which investigated the relationship between student gender, tutor gender and the subject that the students were doing, showed that males and females behaved differently and this was partly due to the fact that teachers tended to recognise males more often than females from elementary level right through to university. The review on tutor discourse behaviour revealed that open referential questions contributed more to effective student talk in interactions than closed display questions. The final section looked briefly at studies on cohesion and coherence in students' academic writing. Even though the focus of the present research is spoken discourse, these studies were discussed because their findings showed that there was some correlation between the density of discontinuatives and good academic writing. Because of this, it was felt worthwhile to explore whether similar relationships applied also in the context of seeking out features that characterise effectiveness of participation in spoken academic genres such as the tutorial.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHOD

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents, discusses and exemplifies the research method used in the study. Research design, hypotheses, research focus, data collection procedures and the analytical framework are presented first. A preliminary empirical test of the validity of a key intuitive construct of this study, the cline of initiative, is then reported on. The final section discussed some problems identified in the application of the analytical framework.

3.1 Research design

A research design implies a careful plan, which a researcher makes at the beginning of a project to decide on an appropriate approach. In this section, the research design of this study will be described in terms of Seliger and Shohamy's (1989) following parameters: hypothetico-deductive versus heuristic-inductive purpose; analytic versus synthetic-holistic approach; and qualitative, descriptive and quantitative designs. The present study can be broadly characterised as hypothetico-deductive, analytic and descriptive. These characteristics come into focus in the discussion that follows.

3.1.1   Hypothetico-deductive versus heuristic-inductive purposes

A hypothetico-deductive purpose begins with specific research questions or hypothesis, which narrow the focus of the research and enable the researcher to do a systematic investigation. In Seliger and Shohamy's (1989) terms, most aspects of a deductive purpose are hypothesis-driven and have some degree of explicitness   in   data   collection   procedures   typical   of   heuristic-inductive

approaches, which are more exploratory and may lead to the formulation of hypotheses. The present study can be characterised as hypothetico deductive, analytic and descriptive. It is hypothetico-deductive because it begins with four hypotheses (§ 1.3) that guide the researcher to focus on only certain aspects of the possible data on interaction in first and third-year tutorials.

3.1.2 Analytic versus synthetic approaches

An analytic approach implies that the phenomenon being investigated is analysed into its constituent parts. When this approach is taken, one constituent part or a cluster of the constituent parts may be examined in greater detail to the exclusion of other factors.   Also, this approach implies that there is enough information about the constituent parts to be explored in isolation (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:56). A synthetic approach, on the other hand, implies that the researcher is aware of the interdependency of the parts of a phenomenon being investigated and will thus look at the separate parts as a coherent whole.

The present study is essentially analytic in its approach as the focus is on investigating a number of specific features of student (and tutor) participation in tutorials: the total number of student discourse acts and turns, discourse act initiative, turn-taking initiative and the possible relationship between certain cohesion features and participation effectiveness, as revealed in the analysis of discourse acts and turns. Ultimately, however, these features are used to define a particular synthesis, namely 'participation effectiveness' in a context such as university tutorials.

3.1.3 Qualitative, descriptive and quantitative designs

Qualitative, descriptive and quantitative research designs are presented on a continuum in Seliger and Shohamy (1989), and can also be used in combination to achieve different purposes within a study. Both qualitative and descriptive

designs are concerned with describing naturally occurring phenomena, without any experimental intervention, but a qualitative design differs from a descriptive design in that it is heuristic, that is very few decisions are made before the study begins. It is also hypothesis-generating research, while a descriptive design can be either heuristic or hypothetico-deductive (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:11). In addition, descriptive research can be either synthetic or analytic in its approach and it does not manipulate naturally occurring phenomena.

This study is essentially descriptive with a hypothetico-deductive objective as it begins with four hypotheses (§ 1.4) three of which are tested statistically, while the final one, the Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis, is analysed more qualitatively because of the complexity of the variables involved. The study is also analytic in that the students' performance in the tutorials is analysed in terms of participation effectiveness, which incorporates other specific features such as the number of discourse acts and turns and initiative at discourse act and turn-taking level (discontinuatives and causatives in students' turns are also investigated as part of an initial exploratory study of possible links between cohesion in student's utterances and the students' participation effectiveness).

3.2 Hypotheses

The hypotheses used in research are important because they are formulated so that they can guide the researcher in her analyses of the data. They also provide useful information to those who might wish to replicate the research in future (Seliger and Shohamy 1989).

As mentioned earlier (§1.3) the four hypotheses used in this study derive from the descriptive aims. Hypothesis 1 (H_1), is the Year of Study hypothesis, concerned with whether third-year students will participate more effectively than first-year students. The second is the Student Gender hypothesis (H_2) concerned with how student gender might affect participation in tutorials. Hypothesis 3 (H_3),

which is the Tutor Gender hypothesis, is concerned with how tutor gender in tutorials might affect participation and hypothesis 4 (H_4), namely the Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis, is concerned with how tutor discourse behaviour might affect students' participation in tutorials. The four hypotheses relate primarily to the descriptive aim of the study, that is, to explore the differences in participation between first and third-years, between male and female students, between tutor gender and student participation and between tutor discourse behaviour and student participation in tutorials.

(a) H_1: Year of Study hypothesis

The third-year students will participate more effectively in tutorials than the first-year students.

The Year of Study hypothesis (H_1) is formulated as a directional hypothesis in this study because it predicts the direction of the possible outcome of the research. Directional hypotheses are usually justified in terms of prior research as well as the experience of the researcher. In this study, for example, experience would lead us to believe that the longer the students are at university, the more proficient they will become in the language of instruction. With higher proficiency in the language of instruction, students may be assumed to be more inclined to participate in the tutorials.

(b) H_2: Student Gender hypothesis

The male students will participate more effectively in tutorials than the female students.

The Student Gender hypothesis is also postulated as directional, as the literature on male and female interactions has repeatedly shown males interrupting and dominating females. For instance, in studies by De Klerk (1995b); Gouran (1968); Kasanga (1996b); West (1979) and Zimmerman (1977) females are

shown as being frequently interrupted and submissive parties, who are more likely to lose the speech floor to their male counterparts. It would be interesting to see whether the participation of males and females in this study would confirm the results in the studies cited above.

(c) H_3: Tutor Gender hypothesis

There is a relationship between tutor gender and student participation effectiveness in tutorials.

The Tutor Gender hypothesis (H_3) is proposed as a non-directional hypothesis because of various factors. In De Klerk (1995b), for example, it was observed that if the leader of a seminar group was female, there were more opportunities for female participants. However, when the male tutor was in charge, the male students conformed to the norms of turn-taking and the male tutor was less interrupted by the male students. In Canada and Pringle (1995) mixed-gender as well as single-gender classes led by female and male professors, students' participation patterns were different. The number of professor solicits accepted was greater for mixed-gender classes led by female professors than for mixed-gender classes led by male professors. Similarly, in Duff et al. (2001) the female teachers directed more interactions toward male than female students, but the male teachers directed an equal number of interactions toward the male and female students. These findings show that the gender of the tutor might have an effect on how the male and female students participate in interactions.

(d) H_4: Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis

There is a relationship between tutor discourse behaviour and student participation effectiveness in tutorials.

The Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis (H_4) was also formulated as a non-directional hypothesis, although features such as turn-taking skills, using

comprehension tasks (Fisher 1996), asking open referential questions and providing content feedback through open-ended questions (Dalton-Puffer 2007) were identified as reflecting effective tutor discourse behaviour in the literature, while the use of closed display questions was seen as ineffective tutor discourse behaviour as such questions are usually posed with a specific answer in mind and thus tend to restrict learner initiative and language development.

3.3 Research focus

The section below briefly describes the groups selected for this study, the tutors who were in charge of the tutorials and the topics for discussion in these tutorials.

3.3.1 The students

Out of 15 first-year and 15 third-year tutorials video recorded over a period of two years, eight first-year and eight third-year tutorials were selected for this research. In each case, the tutorials with the best gender balance were selected, even though the overall numbers of females were considerably higher (i.e. 37 females) than those of the males (i.e. 33 males) and one third-year group had females only. The selected groups had a total of 70 students, 37 first and third-year females and 33 first and third-year males. Due to fluctuations in attendance and the fact that tutorials were not compulsory, the tutorials did not always have the desired composition of six members. However, having small tutorial groups made it possible for the tutors to ensure that almost all students took part in the discussions. Also, fewer students in a group made the tutorial environment less intimidating than a lecture and thus students got to know each other quickly.

The decision to use first-year and third-year students in this study was justified by the results of the pilot study conducted with first, second and third-year students in the Department of English, which suggested that there was very little difference between first-year and second-year students' participation in tutorials.

The other reason for focusing on first-years and third-years was to see what differences might characterise tutorials towards the beginning and the end of undergraduate studies in the Department of English. The students in the first-year and third-year tutorial groups were informed before data were collected that the tutorial sessions would be video recorded for research purposes and they did not object.

The majority of the participants shared the same mother tongue, Setswana, but the tutorials were conducted in English, which is the language of teaching and learning at the Mafikeng campus of the North West University (NWU). Most of the students at this institution are products of previously disadvantaged local high schools.

First-year English usually has a higher enrolment than third-year because the majority of the students at first year take it as an elective, which implies that they only do it for a year and drop it for their major courses, as they proceed to second and third year of study. Although tutorials are mentioned as part of the instructional and learning modes in the Human and Social Sciences Faculty Calendar and in lecturers' course outlines in the English department at NWU, Mafikeng campus, large numbers of students, especially at first year, make it difficult for most lecturers to conduct tutorials. The tutors in the present study were specifically requested to conduct tutorials.

For ethical considerations, I refer to the five tutors in charge of the first-year and third-year tutorials as tutors A, C, D, E and F. Tutor B's two tutorials were excluded from this study because they consisted of more than ten students each, considerably larger than the others and I wanted some control on the size variable.

Sections 3.3.2 and 3.3.4 below briefly describe the tutors and the tutorials they conducted.

3.3.2 The tutors

The tutors who were in charge of the tutorials had different educational backgrounds, teaching experiences and understood the role of language in teaching and learning differently. It is important to describe them briefly as every teacher had his or her own teaching style.

I am Tutor A and I have been teaching English at both undergraduate and post-graduate levels for over 16 years at NWU, Mafikeng campus. During the years, I have come to realise that some students, especially at third-year level, have serious problems with conversing fluently and accurately in English. They also sit passively in lectures even when there is a discussion going on. Being not sure of whether the lack of participation in lectures and discussion groups was caused by not understanding what was taught or being too shy to express themselves in front of all their classmates, I decided to introduce tutorials for my groups. As tutorials were perceived as a means of providing a more relaxed atmosphere than lectures, I thought students might feel free to ask questions and interact freely with their peers.

The interest in this study therefore began as action research intended to find ways in which students could participate more actively with regard to the subject matter of my lectures. After collecting data, I then developed an analytical instrument. The results of the pilot study indicated that most of the students' at all three levels in the Department of English were interested in participating in the tutorials. As tutorials were not part of the teaching-learning techniques in the Department of English, the lecturers conducted them specifically for my study. I could not therefore ask them to take more than two groups each. That is the reason why I ended up with more groups than the other lecturers.

Although I acknowledge that my involvement with half the groups participating in the study potentially presents a threat to its validity, I introduced tutorials to begin

with only because I wanted to help my students participate in the learning process. They took tutorials as additional sessions, where they could ask questions freely because they were fewer than in normal lectures. The idea of developing an analytical framework arose long after I had introduced and recorded the tutorials, which suggests that the validity of the study should not have been compromised to any important extent.

Tutor C was a male first language speaker of English with extensive experience in teaching ESL students. He informed the researcher that he used tutorials as part of his teaching method only when the groups he was teaching were not large. He conducted two first-year tutorial sessions (T105 and 116) for this study. Having done his undergraduate and postgraduate studies at Rhodes University, he was familiar with tutorials.

Tutor D was a male second language speaker of English. He had taught for over ten years at tertiary level when the recordings of the data were done, but had not used tutorials before. He did not give any reason for not using tutorials as part of his teaching modes. For the present study, he was in charge of two third-year tutorials, T306 and T310.

Tutor E, a male second language speaker of English was employed as a temporary full time lecturer when the data for this study were collected. At the time of the tutorial recordings, he had less than three years teaching experience at tertiary level and tutorials were also new to him. He conducted two tutorial sessions (T114 and T301).

Tutor F was a female second language speaker with a Masters degree in TESOL. She had both high school and tertiary teaching experience. In her ten years of teaching first-year students at NWU, she did not use tutorials. Because of her large first-year classes, she only agreed to conduct two first-year tutorial sessions (T113 &T117) specifically for this study.

These tutors were informed that the purpose of conducting tutorials was to collect data for my doctoral study. They were also informed that the tutorials would be video recorded and they consented. Permission was also sought from the students to have their tutorials video recorded.

3.3.3 Tutorials

A total of 16 tutorials were observed, video-recorded and transcribed. The section below describes the key features of each one of them. Tutorial numbers starting with 1 refer to first-year tutorials, while those beginning with 3 refer to third-year tutorials.

Tutorial 105

Tutorial 105 conducted by Tutor C had three students, two males and one female. All three students were from Botswana. Grouping together the students from Botswana was their choice. At the time of the recording, students in this tutorial were doing Module 101, which is Introduction to English Studies. The topic for the tutorial discussion was 'English or Englishes'. Students were not given any reading to do prior to the tutorial session, as the tutor wanted them to reflect on what was discussed in class and relate it to their own experiences of 'Englishes'. That is why, for instance, at the beginning of this tutorial they were asked whether they had a problem understanding South African English and if they were aware of other English varieties spoken in Botswana.

Tutorial 111

Tutor A was in charge of T111. It had three females and one male. For this session, students had to prepare a short story entitled 'The Prisoner who wore glasses'. This story is about political prisoners and the treatment they received from an uneducated White prison warder. The students received copies of the

story the day before the tutorial so that they would not waste time reading it during tutorial time, but the discussion questions were given out to the students at the beginning of the tutorial to avoid rehearsals of responses to the questions. However, the students' slow responses during the tutorial gave an impression that the story was not read the day before. They started looking at it in the tutorial. That is why it is one of the shortest tutorials in this study.

Tutorial 112

The same tutor who was in charge of T111 conducted T112. This was her second tutorial session with the same group of students. The topic for discussion was a poem about accommodation for a foreign student in London. In this tutorial, however, the focus was on the price the landlady was charging for accommodation and the suitability of the place for the tenant. Students had to decide whether the rental was reasonable and also decide whether it was fair for the landlady to enquire about the skin colour of the tenant before deciding whether or not to give him the accommodation.

Tutorial 113

Tutorial 113, with three females and two males, was conducted by Tutor F. In this tutorial, the task given to the students was to explain what they thought the writer of the article *Left is Right* meant by that title. This is the same task that was given to students in T117. The tutor's objective was to practice reading skills. She wanted the students to use their background knowledge and other skills they had learnt in their lectures.

Tutorial 114

Tutorial 114 had three students, two males and one female. This tutorial was conducted by Tutor E. The topic for discussion was cultural alienation in *The Lion*

and the Jewel. This drama forms one of the components of ENG 103 module, which is Introduction to Literary Genres. The other components of this module are short stories, prose, and poems. The tutorial questions to be discussed were handed out to the students at the beginning of the tutorial session, but the reading of the Play should have been done the day before the tutorial. This did not seem to be the case because the start of the discussion was slow, which implied that the reading was not done the day before the tutorial. That could be the reason for having another short tutorial.

Tutorial 115

Tutorial 115 had five students, three males and two females. It was conducted by Tutor A. This tutorial was recorded as part of the English 103 module. The component of the module the students were busy with was a short story entitled 'My Cousin'. They were told to read this story in preparation for the tutorial. During the tutorial, the tutor asked the students what impressions they had formed about the story. This question started a discussion in which the students and the tutor participated.

Tutorial 116

Tutor C conducted T116 with the same group that was in T105. In this tutorial, the students were asked to discuss three different texts on English around the World. The focus was on mutual intelligibility and linguistic distinctiveness.

 Tutorial 117

Tutorial 117, with three females and three males, was conducted by Tutor F. The recording of this tutorial was done when the students were revising reading skills using the article entitled *Left is Right* from a *Reader's Digest*. One of the

discussion questions required the students to give the meaning of the title and the sub-title in conjunction with the visual in the article.

Tutorial 301

Tutorial 301, comprising three males and one female, was led by Tutor E. When the recordings were done, the students were discussing questions on *The Crucible*. The questions for discussion, which were given to the students during the tutorial, centered on the principles expected from the Christians. These principles were then related to the prescribed text.

Tutorial 305

Tutorial 305, with three males and two females, was conducted by Tutor A. In this tutorial, the students discussed two newspaper articles, one from *The Sunday Times* and the other one from *The City Press*. This was part of the stylistics component of ENG 301 module. Starting with the headlines in the two newspaper articles, they had to discuss why the writers of the two articles presented them differently.

Tutorial 306

In Tutorial 306 there were three males and three females. Tutor D was in charge of this tutorial group. When data were collected, this group was discussing whether female writers should write about their experiences. This topic was part of ENG 304 module, which is *Critical Approaches to Literature.* The average recording time for tutorials was about 40 minutes, but this one turned out to be another short tutorial because it began with a long introduction on local and international female writers before students were asked if these writers had stereotypes about their experiences. As the introduction took about half the tutorial time, it was edited out.

Tutorial 310

Tutor D also conducted T310. It had three females, and one male student. The discussion question, which focused on the language in African literature and the attitudes of students towards African languages, was related to the lecture the students had a week before the tutorial session. This was tutor D's second third-year tutorial.

Tutorial 311

Tutor A led T311. It had three female students and one male. During the recordings, the students were discussing second language acquisition, which is one of the topics in *Theory of Language Acquisition, Stylistics and Grammar* module. For this tutorial, the students were given two questions, one on the effects of age on acquisition and the second, on the importance of input and output in second language acquisition.

Tutorial 312

In T312 there were only three female students. It was also conducted by Tutor A. The topic for discussion was whether young second language learners were better acquirers than adult learners. This group had also been assigned to read the recommended books before the tutorial. During the tutorial, they only managed to discuss one question.

Tutorial 314

In T314, there were three males and two females. This was also Tutor A's tutorial group. At the beginning of the tutorial, the students were given two questions on cognitive and personality factors in second language acquisition. They had already had a formal lecture on these topics. The tutorial was meant to enable

them to discuss the topics and relate them to their own experiences as second language learners.

Tutorial 309

In T309, there were six students, three males and three females. In this tutorial Tutor A was present, but did not make any inputs. This was done deliberately to find out if it was true that in tutorless tutorials, as claimed by Powell (1974), there is more student participation. At the start of the tutorial, the students were given two newspaper articles, one from *The City Press* and the other one from *The Sunday Times*, with the same story to read and to compare the presentation of these stories, i.e. headlines, language, etc.

The total number of students in each tutorial and the tutors who were in charge of these tutorials are presented in the table below.

Table 3.1 First and third-year tutors and students.

Tutorial (1st years)	Tutor	Number of Students
T105	Tutor C	3 (2m &1f
T111	Tutor A	4(1m & 3f)
T112	Tutor A	4(1m & 3f)
T113	Tutor F	5(2m & 3f)
T114	Tutor E	3 (2m & 1f)
T115	Tutor A	5 (3m & 2f)
T116	Tutor C	3 (2m & 1f)
T117	Tutor F	6 (3m &3f)
Total = 8	**Total= 4**	**Total = 33 (15 m & 18 f)**
Tutorial (3rd years)	Tutor	Number of students
T301	Tutor E	4 (3 m & 1f)
T305	Tutor A	5 (3m & 2f)

T306	Tutor D	6 (3m & 3f)
T309	Tutorless	6 (3m & 3f)
T310	Tutor D	4 (1m & 3f)
T311	Tutor A	4 (1m &3f)
T312	Tutor A	5 (0m & 3f)
T314	Tutor A	5(3m &2f)
Total = 8	**Total= 3**	**Total = 37 (17 m & 20)**
Grand total = 16	**Tutors= 5**	**Students= 70**

The groups presented in Table 3.1 were naturally occurring and it was not possible to manipulate the numbers for a better balance across student gender with respect to tutor or topic. The length of the recordings on average was 40 minutes, but when data were transcribed, the first five minutes of the recordings were discarded, as this improved the likelihood that recordings would be a reflection of the normal situation.

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

Data were collected from 16 groups using a video camera.   Video cameras have both advantages and disadvantages. For example, if they are operated by capable cameramen, they provide more elaborate data. One of the disadvantages that they potentially have is a strong observer effect, which may be mitigated by discarding the recordings done within the first five minutes, as participants' tend to exhibit unnatural behaviour at the beginning of a recording. As these recordings continued, the students seemed to forget that they were being recorded and began acting more naturally, getting involved in the discussion and focusing much less on the camera. In this study, using a video camera made it possible to capture both verbal and non-verbal aspects of the interaction, which proved useful in distinguishing initiative from non-initiative-bearing turns.

Participants were informed prior to the recording about the cameraman, who would be present in the tutorial room, and they did not object. No details of the study were revealed to the students, as this could interfere with the naturalness of the data and might even skew the findings.

In the tutorial room where the recordings were done, chairs were arranged in a U-shape so that the tutor and the students sat facing each other. Pastoll (1992) recommends this seating arrangement for the following reason:

> the seating arrangement in a room dictates what type
> of relationship is possible between the occupants. If you
> have your back to someone; it is difficult to include her in
> your field of awareness. If a tutor occupies a prominent
> position there is an automatic hierarchy of authority, which
> inhibits spontaneous interchange. (Pastoll 1992:24)

Arranging chairs in a U-shape and having the tutor sit together with the students removed that 'automatic hierarchy of authority' that Pastoll (1992) talks about, when the tutor stands in front of a group. This arrangement provided a relaxed atmosphere for the students because they did not perceive tutors as authority figures in their midst.

Students had nametags to make identification of the different students easier for the researcher during transcription and analysis. It also made it possible for the researcher to monitor the progress of students in subsequent tutorial sessions. During data collection, the researcher met informally with the tutors at the end of each session to find out how the tutorials had gone.

Two days after recording four tutorials, two first-year and two third-year sessions, eight lecturers from the English department watched the video recordings of these tutorials and then they were asked about their overall

impressions of the first-year and third-year students regarding the levels of participation in the tutorials. It was hoped that they would point out the differences in participation between first and third-year students and whether the differences in participation were influenced by what the tutors did or did not do. All eight lecturers felt that although the general participation of first-years was not very good, the students made an attempt to participate. The two female lecturers, whose responses are presented below, for example, did not conduct any tutorials. They based their comments on the video recordings they watched.

Lecturer 1:   The students at first-year did not convince me that they
                understood exactly what they were talking about. But my
                impression was that at least they could say something. I
                saw them volunteer to ask questions.

Lecturer 2:   At first-year, there were those students who did not
                participate very well. But on the whole the students
                tried their best to take part in the discussion.

Some of their responses are fused into the discussion of the findings in Chapter 4.

Recording the data of all 16 tutorials took three weeks, and transcription commenced soon afterwards. After transcription, the data were segmented into F-units and then coded using, the six discourse acts and three turn categories discussed in (§ 3.5). Pauses of approximately three seconds or more were marked with three bold dots (**…**), overlaps or simultaneous responses were indicated with square brackets ([ ]) and unfinished sentences with three unbolded dots (…)(§ Appendix 1).

In the next section, the analytical framework that was used to analyse the students' spoken discourse in tutorials is presented.

3.5 The analytical framework

The focus in this section is on the integrated analytical framework, which addresses the research questions and the hypotheses of the study formulated in Chapter 1. The analytical framework presented is informed primarily by ideas about turn-taking initiative categories from Van Lier (1988) and discourse acts drawn from Hubbard (1998). Linking turn taking and discourse act analyses into a framework made it possible to look at students' participation in quantitative as well as qualitative terms.

In the section that follows, the focus is on turns, functional-units, discourse acts and the testing of the cline of initiative. The description of the turns distinguishes initiative-bearing from non-initiative-bearing turns. A brief discussion of the F-unit, in terms of which discourse acts are defined, is presented. This is followed by a discussion of how the discourse acts in the framework are ranked and tested with respect to a potential cline that distinguishes different degrees of discourse act initiative. The applicability of the framework is illustrated on sample excerpts drawn from the data.

3.5.1 Turns

Turns provide a measurement for participation as well as participation effectiveness. Participation in terms of turn-taking is operationalised as the total number of turns, while participation effectiveness at turn-taking level is based on a very specific aspect of the distribution of turn types, namely that between the four initiative-bearing turn types, on the one hand, and those that are not initiative bearing, on the other.

Turns in the study are, broadly speaking, analysed in terms of Van Lier's (1988) turn-taking model (though with adaptations to some of his definitions), where the initiative-bearing turns are allocations, self-selections, sequences and topic

changes, but in my study, as indicated below, topic change as an initiative bearing turn was excluded. leaving allocation, self-selection and sequence in the model. Van Lier (1988) makes a distinction between turns that reveal initiative and those that do not, as discussed earlier (§ 2.2.2). An initiative-bearing turn is one which occurs voluntarily, that is a participant takes part in an interaction willingly, while a non-initiative turn occurs when a speaker joins the speech floor only because of being allocated a turn. In such a case, the speaker does not volunteer to participate and therefore the response cannot be classified as initiative bearing. In the present study, a turn which is not initiative bearing is identified as any turn that is neither an allocation, self-selection or sequence. Thus such a turn occurs when the speaker has been specifically allocated the turn without trying to self-select verbally (e.g. by an attempted interruption) and also does not show subsequent initiative by allocating to another participant.

Van Lier's (1988) turn categories are examined in more detail in the next section.

Allocation

Van Lier (1988:125) defines allocation as a turn or turn-part that 'selects from among those present one specific next speaker'. He does not indicate how the selection is done, but Hunt (1997) shows that it can be done by name, eye gaze and/or pointing. It is not clear whether Van Lier accommodates the speaker's eye gaze and pointing in his definition, but in the present study, it was difficult to capture these features on video because the camera tended to focus only on the person who was speaking at the time and it was therefore usually not possible to see in the results who was being gazed at or pointed at. Pointing, however, was not really an issue in this study because from my observations it was clear that it was very rare, reflecting perhaps the relatively intimate environment of the tutorials. Therefore, I relied on verbal selection alone to analyse allocation, as in the tutor's turn [51] below:

Excerpt 1-T311

[Self-selection][49]Tutor:		Now, let's look at the third question. Would a child that is locked Up in a room daily acquire language. […]Now let's hear from Mpho and Rachel.
[50]Rachel:		I don't think…
[Allocation][51]Tutor:		Let's start with Mpho.
[52]Mpho:		I don't think a child that's been locked up in a room would acquire language because in language acquisition…

Mpho is verbally selected to take the next turn and because the turn was given to him, it is therefore not initiative bearing.

Self-selection

In Van Lier (1988:124), self-selection is defined by the question, 'does selection to speak originate from this speaker?' In the present study, self-selection occurs when a speaker who has not been allocated a turn directly actively seeks the floor and takes the turn at the end of the previous speaker's turn, even when the latter is not an elicit of any sort, as in [24], [25], [26] and [27].

Excerpt 2-T301

[Sequence][23]Tutor:		OK! It also highlights selfishness. Anybody to add to that? What about Abigail?
[Self-selection][24]Tebogo:		Actually, she was in love with Proctor.
[Self-selection][25]Mark:		I do not think they were in love. It was adultery.
[Self-selection][26]Tony:		It was lust. The fact is that they had an affair.
[Self-selection][27]Tebogo:		They had an affair.

An interruption, is also a self-selection, though made before the current speaker's turn has been completed. Often, 'far from disrupting the interaction, such self-

selection adds to the naturalness of the discourse' (Van Lier 1988:114) and it is also recognised as initiative-bearing, as in turn [18] below:

Excerpt 3-T311

	[17] Mpho:	Because in most cases you find that a child's first language…
[Self-selection][18]Mmathabo:		… it does play a major role, but it is limited. They can't imitate everything that is said, like she said they only pick up on the sound that the person is saying like she said '*metsi*'.

Sequence

As defined by Van Lier (1988), the notion of 'sequence' is not very clear. According to him, a turn shows initiative on the part of a speaker if in a sequence it is 'the first part (whether or not other parts in fact follow)'; or 'closing part (if the sequence is more than two turns long)' (Van Lier 1988:125). This definition does not, amongst other things, spell out for example how many turns can intervene between a speaker's initial turn and his or her next turn in order still to be regarded as a sequence for that speaker. In this study, therefore, an attempt is made to provide a more precise and workable definition that better reflects the fact that a speaker shows initiative when he or she sustains interaction by following up an initial turn with another after an interlocutor has taken a turn. This is a fairly strict definition (not allowing for an indefinite number of intervening turns between the initial speaker's turns), but the restriction to one intervening turn makes the definition less open-endedly subjective, while at the same time recognising the high degree of initiative taken by speakers who stay active on the speech floor when they take up alternate turns over a certain period. When, however, a third person comes to the speech floor, that particular sequence is interrupted. Apart from allowing for clearer coding, this definition is motivated by a very common occurrence in conversation and also in the tutorial data. For instance, turns [20] and [22] below are part of a sequence, but as soon as a third person joins the speech floor, as in the case of Tebogo in [24], Mark's sequence

is interrupted. In Van Lier's (1988) definition, Mark's turn [25] would be coded as a sequence, even though there was more than one intervening turn between turns [22] and [25]. His initiative is however still recognised as a self-selection.

Excerpt 4-T301

[Sequence][20]Mark: And with the concepts like greediness, which are lustful…

[Sequence][21]Tutor: … values.

[Sequence][22]Mark: Not values, they are lustful desires emanating from

      the facts like eh… all he wants is land and more money.

      He just wants to acquire more money at the expense of

      other people getting poorer.

[Sequence][23]Tutor: OK! It also highlights selfishness. Anybody to add to

      that? What about Abigail?

[Self-selection][24]Tebogo: Actually, she was in love with Proctor.

[Self-selection][25]Mark: I do not think they were in love. It was adultery.

Topic change

Van Lier's (1988:124) topic changes are defined by the question, 'does the turn or turn part introduce something new?' He acknowledges that in defining topic change intuitive judgment is involved because

> the distinction between on-stream and off-stream discourse
> is not at all times a clear-cut one. Discoursal elements are
> more or less on- or off-stream, and they may be regarded as
> on-stream by one person but as off-stream by the
> next. (Van Lier 1988:130)

Also, Kinginger (1994:31), who used Van Lier's (1988) turn taking model agrees that defining topic change is not easy because it is difficult to distinguish between

what is new and not new. Van Lier also states that it is normally teachers who change topics when they feel it is necessary, and a student who introduces something new to the topic demonstrates initiative.

Topic change is a subjective concept that is difficult to analyse, as shown by Van Lier and Kinginger. In the data of this study, the turns which were initially coded as topic changes were not actually introducing completely new information to the topic of discussion, as in T309 [6]

Excerpt 5-T 309

[Sequence][4]Joe:	So what are you saying where it says, 'He has to be
	named in the nominal high level of corruption?'
[Self-selection][5]Tich:	What we have to do right now without wasting time
	Is to look at the paragraph…how it is written, the
	content, commas, punctuations, dashes and what…
[Self-selection][6]Jerry:	Before we get to the commas, what
	about the language?

This is one of the few examples in the study where one could argue for topic change, but even here it is not that easy to isolate it as topic change because when turn [6] is read in conjunction with preceding discourse, it becomes very clear that the intention of the speaker is not to introduce a totally new topic, but to direct the focus to what seems more important and has not been given that recognition. This is a complex area and more research needs to be conducted into this complex issue of topic change. It was therefore not included in the analytical framework of this study and thus initiative at turn taking level was analysed only in terms of allocation, self-selection and sequence. Turns allocated to speakers, on the other hand, are described as non-initiative-bearing (§ 2.2.2).

3.5.2 Discourse acts and functional units

The main focus of this study is the quantity and quality of students' spoken discourse. Both aspects are related to the notion of 'effectiveness' in participation, which is operationalised in terms of the amount of participation generated by the students at discourse act and turn taking level, and the degree of initiative also at discourse act and turn taking level. In order to quantify and compare students' discourse in and within turns, Crombie's (1985b:45) work on interactive semantic relations and general semantic relations forms a background to the analysis of relations within and between turns .

The discussion below begins with the identification of textual-units, followed by the discourse acts and then the sub division of elicits.

Crombie makes a distinction between interactive semantic relations, as in [29] and [30] (i.e. elicit, and reply-inform) and general semantic relations or discourse value relations (i.e. Reason-Result) between and also within turns.   The discourse values are also called binary values because they require two linked components (Hubbard 1989:125), such as Reason-Result, as inT111 [29] and [30]; and Condition-Consequence, as in T311 [38]:

Excerpt 6-T111

[Sequence][29]Tutor: Why do they call him a simple, primitive brutal soul?(Elicit)
[Sequence][30]Dorothy: I think its because he looked like the way he dressed.(Reply-inform)

Excerpt 7-T311

     [38]Mmathabo: […] If you haven't heard the words before/ you cannot come
         and say that it is a cupboard.

In [29] and [30] the linguistic units that act as components in these discourse value relations are sentences, but these value relations can also be seen between clauses, as in T112 [36] and T311 [31]:

Excerpt 8-T112

[Sequence][36]Dorothy:　　　　[…] If you are light in complexion, they can accept you.

Excerpt 9-311

[Sequence][31]Mmathabo:　　　[…] Because he told us before that it is a chalkboard,
　　　　　　　　　　　　　we'd actually have to say it's a chalkboard.

The focus in the present study is not on the analysis of categories of binary relations, but the stretches of language in which such relations operate represent meaningful discourse units that could be used to quantify the amount of discourse students (and tutors) use. Such units are relatively easy to define and use in discourse analysis and the unit used by researchers such as Lieber (1981), Hubbard (1989), Ramasawmy (2004) and Tichapondwa (2008) is called the functional unit (F-unit), and it is discussed below. However, to appreciate why the F-unit was chosen it is necessary to first consider some of the other discourse quantifying units, namely the sentence, the T-unit and the clause.

An orthographic sentence, namely whatever occurs between two full stops (Halliday and Hasan:1976), does not seem to provide an adequate basis for an analysis of quantities of meaningful units in spoken discourse. For example, consider [18] and [19] below:

Excerpt 10-T311

[Self-selection][18]Mmathabo:　Imitation does play a major role, but the nativists are
　　　　　　　　　　　　　not emphasising its importance.
　　　　　　[19]　　　　　　Imitation does play a major role. But the nativists are

not emphasising its importance.

In [19] *but* signals a Concession-Contraexpectation between the two units, but if [18] is considered as a single unit, then the 'the binary (two-unit) relation cannot be analysed for it' (Hubbard 1989:114). A further reason, which is also highlighted by Hubbard (1989:114), for an orthographic sentence not qualifying for analysis is that it varies greatly in length and can be extremely long and so cannot act as a basic unit of discourse meaning. In this study trying to analyse spoken discourse in terms of orthographic sentences would make even less sense, also because of hesitations and repairs, as in [2]

Excerpt 11- T311

[Self-selection][2]Mmathabo: Caretaker speech contributes a lot because it has

                                …it uses a lot of simple words and simple sentences

                                so that the child understands what the person… the

                                the mother is saying.

A T-unit, which is defined as the main clause plus any subordinate clauses (Hubbard 1989:115), is less arbitrarily defined than a sentence, but still presents problems in analysing discourse. For instance, although T311 [18] and [19] above would be regarded as consisting of two T-units each, the essentially equivalent relation in [20] is one T-unit because its second clause is a subordinate one and so the relation would not be analysed and counted as two different discourse units.

Excerpt 12-311

[Sequence][20]Mmathabo: Imitation does play a role, though it is not

                              not emphasised.

Neither the sentence nor the T-unit is therefore seen as adequate for quantifying units of discourse in the present study.

The clause, though it is smaller than the sentence and T-unit, is also not suitable for analysing meaningful discourse units because it is 'sometimes too large a unit to be isomorphous with rhetorical structures such as those defined by relational coherence analysis'(Hubbard 1989:116). Thus appositive structures, for example, should be analysed as separate units, but often they are not clauses because they do not contain verbs, as in[10]

Excerpt 13-T114

[Self-selection][10]Lucky: I think this man, Lakunle, is not a real European.

A unit of segmentation which seems to provide a reasonably objective analysis as it has been defined with reference to both discourse and syntactic considerations is the functional unit (F-unit), which consists of clauses and non-clausal expressions that are functionally equivalent to clauses:

> it was necessary to differentiate those clauses and clause
> equivalents which not only function syntactically but also
> serve to advance that development rhetorically from those
> that seem only to fill essentially syntactic slots (such as
> subject of a sentence) within a matrix clause. (Lieber 1981:58)

The F-unit structure adopted in this study originates from Lieber (1981) and was also used in Hubbard (1989:117). In both studies it was applied to written work, but in the present study it is used to segment spoken discourse into rhetorically relevant units of discourse, using slashes to mark off the F-unit boundaries, as shown in [7] below. As explained in Hubbard (1989:119), the functional-unit can be analysed within coordinate and subordinate clauses. In the examples below,

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the coordinate and subordinate clauses are illustrated with examples from my data.

F- units in coordinate clauses include:

(a)   Clauses joined by coordinating conjunctions, as in:

Excerpt 14-T301

>[30]Tony: Abigail and Proctor had an affair/ and indeed that
>
>   affair did exist.

(b)   Clauses in conjoined verbal structures where repetition of the subject
>   noun is omitted, as in:

Excerpt 15-T112

>[49]Dorothy: I had to take my dictionary/ and look for some words.

F-units in subordinate clauses include:

Adverbial subordinate clauses in reason-result relations,

Excerpt 16-T301

>[52]Mark: I think she deteriorated /<u>because</u> nowhere does she confess
>
>   what they did in the woods.

In turn [52] in T301, the subordinate clause begins after the slash and is identified by the conjunction *because*. In this example the result is followed by a reason.

Excerpt 17-T312

>[50]Amanda: I think output is important/ <u>because</u> //<u>when I hear something</u>,//
>   I have to pronounce it/ <u>in order</u> for me to know I can really
>   say the word.

In T312 [50], the double slash signals that the subordinate clause introduced by *when* is inside the clause introduced by *because* and so the *when* clause is analysed as one F-unit and the *because … I have to pronounce it* is analysed as another single F-unit.

Other types of adverbial subordinate clauses that have been identified in this study as F-units are temporal and locative clauses. Lieber (1981) did not recognise such clauses as F-units on the grounds that they were 'considered as an integral part of their associated matrix clauses'(Lieber 1981:79). However, she accepted conditional clauses introduced by *when* as F-units and such *when* clauses are hardly any different to temporal *when* clauses and locative *where* clauses. Therefore, as in Hubbard (1989), in this study temporal and locative clauses are identified as F-units. The example below illustrates these types of clauses.

Excerpt 18-T301

[48]Mark: But// <u>when Rebecca appeared</u>// she was his shining amour.

The *if---then* clauses signalling reason-result, as in T312 [52] were also analysed as F-units in the study.

Excerpt 19-T312

[52]Seithati: […] If you practice/ then you become perfect.

Non-restrictive relative clauses provide additional, but non-essential information about the noun phrase (NP) (Lieber 1981:66). They are regarded as F-units because they are viewed as 'separate clauses included within, but not part of a matrix clause'(Lieber 1981:66). Thus in [46] there are two F-units, as marked:

Excerpt 20-T301

> [46]Mark: In the end, Proctor wanted to give a confession,/ <u>which</u>
> <u>surprised all his friends</u>.

Restrictive relative clauses, on the other hand, were not isolated as F-units by Lieber (1981) because 'they are treated as structures embedded within the NP node that they modify,' and because 'any new information presented in such a structure serves to identify the referent of the head noun' (Lieber 1981:64), as in

Excerpt 21-T311

> [52] Mpho: The child <u>who was locked up in a room</u> could not speak.

Similarly, complement clauses are also not analysed as F-units because separating out these clauses would leave fragmentary units such as *He decided…,* in T301[46]. Lieber(1981:61) suggests that such clauses be kept as an integral part of their clauses.

Excerpt 22-T301

> [46]Mark   He decided <u>that he would not give them his confession</u>.

In T311[52] and T301[46], the restrictive forms are an integral part of the noun phrase rather than a separate rhetorical unit and therefore not eligible for F-unit status.

In the present study, in addition to the restrictive clauses, unfinished sentences or self-repairs, as in [22] were not segmented as separate F-units because the aim is to quantify the amount of discourse generated by the students as an indication of participation effectiveness. I would therefore not count self-repairs as double F-units as this would increase the number of discourse acts for those students who regularly use self-repairs.

Excerpt 23-T311

> [22]Nono: But children are creative,/ or just test themselves…/
> <u>you know by making…trying to create their own sounds</u>.

The foregoing discussion has shown how F-units are identified and why they were selected in order to provide a reasonably objective measure for quantifying and comparing the amount of spoken discourse generated by the students in the study. The F-units help define the length of an act, which is defined by Crombie (1985:37) as 'the actual realization of a move in a conversational discourse', as in turn [7] below, where an eliciting move is realised by an *elicit,* an informing move in turn [8] is realised by *inform* and in turn [9] a follow-up or acknowledging move is realised by an *acknowledge.*

Excerpt 24-T111

> [Self-selection][7]Tutor: …which page?
> [Sequence][8]Dorothy: First page.
> [Sequence][9]Tutor: Okay.

However, in the much longer turn T311 [3] below, in terms of speech act theory the whole turn would be considered as an informing move in which the act of informing is performed and there would be no analysis of rhetorically relevant components (cf. Crombie 1985b's discourse values as discussed above) within the speech act. In the present study, it is important that speech acts are analysed and quantified in terms of such meaningful discourse act units, defined in terms of F-units. In this example, there is one speech act which comprises five discourse acts (an initial reply-inform followed by four informs).

Excerpt 25-T311

> [3]Nono: Yes,/ that is pretty much what I understand by caretaker speech./
> What she said contributes a lot to the child's first language

acquisition /in a sense that it gives the child a lot of time to

involve himself in the language/ and in the process absorbing

the language as well.

In the remainder of this section, the definitions and the application of a set of acts which make up part of the main component of the analytical framework are presented.

Counter-inform (CI)

Crombie (1985a:39) defines a Counter-inform 'as an act that challenges the supremacy of the first speaker'. In the present study, counter-informs are defined as acts that directly challenge the content of preceding turns and are usually signalled by negation and contrast expressions such as *but*. These additional pointers (e.g. *negation* and *but*) provide an objective and explicit definition that more   easily   distinguishes counter-informs, as in [25] and [28] below, from comments.

Excerpt 26-T301

```
                    A->              I->                        E->
[23]Tutor:     OK!/ It also highlights selfishness./ Anybody to add to that?/
                    E->
               What about Abigail?
                    I->
[24]Tebogo:    Actually, she was in love with Proctor.
                    CI->
[25]Mark:      I do not think they were in love.
                    C->      I->
[26]Tony:      It was lust./ The fact that they had an affair.
                    A->
[27]Tebogo:    They had an affair.
                    CI->
[28]Mark:      But there is nowhere…where it is written.

                    A->        C->                        I->
[29]Tutor:     Yeah!/ It is not necessarily an affair./ They were just flirting.
```

Comment (C)

Comments are defined as 'linguistic responses which may add related information or evaluate the content of preceding utterances' (Crombie 1985a:39). In this study, a comment is defined more narrowly as an act that expresses an opinion and evaluates the content of a preceding turn to exemplify and expand it, but does not directly contradict it in the manner of counter-informs as just discussed. In turn [26] above, Tony expands the preceding content rather than challenging it and in turn [29] above, although *not* is used, this discourse act is analysed as a comment because it is not a direct contradiction, as it is hedged by *necessarily* and the following act after the comment explains why it is not an affair.

Reply-inform (RI)

Crombie (1985a:38) defines reply-informs 'as linguistic responses appropriate to elicitations'. In the present study this definition is modified by adding that reply-informs are minimal responses to elicits because they provide no expansion beyond the minimal information required, as in [30]

Excerpt 27-T112

```
                       A->            E->
         [29]Tutor:    Yes./ Who asks that question?
                              RI->
         [30]Dorothy:  It is the landlady.
```

Acknowledge (A)

Crombie (1985a:38) defines an acknowledge as a linguistic or non-linguistic response indicating that a preceding utterance or action has been noted. In my study, it is defined specifically as a verbal act because in tutorials verbal participation is encouraged and also because non-verbal cues are essential beyond the scope of this study. In the study, acknowledges are usually

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expressions such as *OK*, as in [9], *Yes* or sometimes short phrases equivalent to *Yes* because they echo agreement, as in [27]

Excerpt 28-T111

	I->	
[6]Dorothy:	But this man, for me it says…	
	E->	
[7]Tutor:	…which page?	
	I->	
[8]Dorothy:	First page.	
	A->	
[9]Tutor:	OK!	

Excerpt 29-T301

	C-> I->
[26]Tony:	It was lust./ The fact that they had an affair.
	A->
[27]Tebogo:	They had an affair.

Inform (I)

An inform is defined as an act 'whose primary function is to pass on ideas, facts, opinions etc.' (Crombie 1985a:38). In this study, inform provides additional information that expands and clarifies a preceding act or turn, as in [6]. It is also perceived as a default category within the analytical framework in the sense that other categories can be more strictly defined and so when none of those definitions is appropriate to a certain F-unit, it is highly likely that it should be categorised as an inform.

Excerpt 30-T311

	A-> I->
[3]Nono:	Yes,/ that is pretty much what I understand by caretaker speech./
	I->
	What she said contributes a lot to the child's first language
	I->
	acquisition /in a sense that it give the child a lot of time to
	I->
	involve himself in the language/ and in the process absorbing
	the language as well.

```
                                    I->                            E->
[4]Tutor:          When we talk about caretaker speech,/ who is the caretaker?
                                    RI->
[5]Rachel:         It is the mother, father, grandparents, everybody who is around
                   the child.
                                    I->                        I->
[6]Nono:           And talks to the child, you know/ and interacts with the child.
```

In turn [3] and [6] both informs provide additional information that expand the preceding turns.

Elicit (E)

Elicit in Crombie (1985a:38) is defined as 'an act whose primary function is to request a linguistic response in the form of an informative, although the actual response may be a non-verbal substitute such as a nod'. In the present study, an elicit is seen as an act that requests a verbal response, which could be any of the six discourse acts in the analytical framework. Responses to elicits do not necessarily have to be informs, as indicated in Crombie's definition. In the example below, for instance, the student responds to the tutor elicits with a reply-inform and informs, as shown in [52]

Excerpt 31-T301

```
                                    A->        E->
[Sequence][51]Tutor:      Year!/ What about Abigail?(Open referential)/
                                    E->
                          Did she improve or deteriorate?(Closed referential)/


                                    RI->                        I->
[Sequence][52]Mark:       I think  she deteriorated / because nowhere does she
                                                            I->
                          confess what they did in the woods./ In return, she

                          promises To harm the little girl in one way or the other.
```

In all 16 tutorials, there were only 19 student elicits, most of these elicits were requests for clarification, confirmation checks and comprehension checks regarding preceding acts and turns, as inT301 [34] and T 311[31]

Excerpt 32-T301

[Sequence][34]Tony:	I-> I->

<pre>
                              I->   I->
[Sequence][34]Tony: […]He did as he was told./ But failed to mention one
                                              E->
                      commandment./ Why did he fail to mention that
                                              I->
                      commandment?/ It's because he was aware that it

                      speaks with him.
</pre>

Excerpt 33-T311

<pre>
                              I->   I->
[Sequence][31]Mmabatho: […] We didn't know it is a chalkboard./ So we are imitating
                                        E->   I->
                      what she said./ Isn't that imitation?/ I think it falls under

                      imitation.
</pre>

Tutor elicits, on the other hand, were used to encourage student participation, enhance comprehension of academic content, provide feedback to tutorial discussion questions and to sustain interaction in tutorial discussions. Because of the different functions performed by tutor elicits and also because one of the research variables in the study was to investigate the influence of tutor discourse behaviour on student participation, it was therefore necessary to subdivide elicits into different types of questions identified in the data. By way of illustration, in T301 turn [51] above, the tutor asked two types of questions, namely an open referential question and a closed referential question (§ 2.4). The first one is open, but the second one requires a very specific response. If elicits in this study were not analysed further it would be difficult to recognise the different functions performed by the tutor elicits as in this example. Also, as the purpose of the tutor discourse behaviour analyses was to explore how this behaviour influenced student output, such an analysis should accommodate the potentially different effects of different types of elicits in terms of the quantity and quality of the student output. Tutor discourse behaviour was therefore analysed in terms of a three-way categorisation of elicits, namely closed display, closed referential and open referential questions. The definitions and illustrations of these questions are presented in the next section.

(a) Closed display questions

These are questions that require very precise, limited information known to the tutor, as in [26] and [28] below. The closed display questions are categorised as closed because there is often only one correct response and they are also display because the student is required to display very specific knowledge in the response, the content of which is known to the questioner. Some limiting yes/no questions and 'wh' questions, as in[33] and [28], would be considered under this category.

Excerpt 34-T112

```
                                     I->
[32]Dorothy:    The caller is trying to convince the landlady by saying…
                                     E->
[33] Tutor:     …line 22, can you read that? (Closed display)
                        RI->
[34]Dorothy:    Not all together.
```

Excerpt 35-T311

```
[28]Tutor:      When we talk about caretaker speech/

                who is the caretaker? (Closed display)
                        RI->
[29]Rachel:     It is the mother, the father, the grandparents, everybody
                around the child.
```

(b) Closed referential questions

These are questions that also expect one of a limited set of closed responses, but here the questioner does not know which one of these responses will be made and this is what differentiates closed referential questions from closed display questions. The closed referential questions are described as referential because they are genuine questions, as illustrated in [43] below;.

Excerpt 36-T112

```
                                          I->
[Sequence][41]Tutor:        We are talking about the poem.
                            A->      I->
[Sequence][42]Tsweni:       OK!/ the poem itself.
                                 CI->                          I->
[Sequence][43]Tutor:        Not about Black and White./ The structure of the poem,
                                                            I->
                            the techniques that the writer has used/…if you compare

                            it with the poem that we discussed yesterday,/ do you
                            find this one better or not? (Closed referential)
```

(c) Open referential questions

Open referential questions are also described as genuine questions to which answers are not known by the questioner (Hung 2004 and Sinclair & Coulthard 1975). They are known as high cognitive level questions (Da 2009 and Lynch 1991) because they involve interpretation and evaluation of the content being discussed (e.g. opinions about the text in my examples here). Because of being open-ended, they tend to generate divergent responses (Maley 2009 and Suter 2001), as in T301 [23] and [25]:

Excerpt 37-T301

```
                            A->              I->                E->
[Sequence][23]Tutor:        OK!/ It also highlights selfishness./ Anybody to

                            add to that?(Open referential)/
                                               E->
                            What about Abigail?(Open referential)
                                 I->
[Self-selection][24]Tebogo:  Actually, she was in love with Proctor.
                                 CI->                              I->
[Self-selection][25]Mark:    I do not think they were in love./ It was adultery.
```

(d)   Confirmation checks, comprehension checks and clarification requests

In addition to the closed display, closed referential and open referential questions, confirmation checks, comprehension checks and clarification requests can also be expressed through closed display and closed referential questions. Tuan et al. (2010:33) say ' a closed display question is asked for comprehension checks, confirmation checks or clarification requests.' However, where it was clear that elicits functioned in these three ways, they were also labelled accordingly, as in [37], [46] and [50], but not analysed.

Excerpt 38-T112

	I->
[Sequence][36]Dorothy:	I think by then Africans or Black people did not mix
	I->
	with the Whites or other residents./ By saying this,/
	I->
	the caller is trying to convince the madam to think
	I->
	that he is light complexioned,/because//if you are
	I->
	light complexioned // they can accept you.
[Sequence][37]Tutor:	Does he succeed?(**Closed referential**)/
	Is he able to convince the landlady?
	(**Closed referential: Confirmation check**)
[Sequence][46]Tutor:	But we do find figures of speech in poems…/
	don't we?(**Closed referential: Confirmation check**)
	I->
[Self-selection][49]Dorothy:	Let me say…but this one, I had to take my dictionary/
	I-> I->
	and look for some words./ It took sometime for me to
	understand.
[Sequence][50]Tutor:	Like which words?(**Clarification requests**)

In the preceding section, the focus was on the discourse act categories which also form part of the analytical framework of this study. These discourse acts

provide a basis for quantitative analysis of the students' discourse performance. However, as the focus of the study is participation effectiveness, which encompasses the quality of each student's discourse performance as well as its quantity, it was therefore necessary to distinguish between the different types of discourse acts in a more qualitative manner, that is by establishing the relative degree of initiative that might be attributed to each discourse act in terms of what has been called a cline of initiative (Hubbard 1998). The following section describes the pilot study which I undertook to assess empirically the validity of the cline of initiative in order that the analysis of the quality of student initiative reflected in different discourse acts could proceed on a well-founded basis.

3.6 The cline of initiative study

Just as Van Lier's (1988) distinction between initiative and non-initiative-bearing turns was based on intuition, so too was the ranking of the discourse acts in the cline of initiative in Hubbard (1998). However, an intended contribution of my study was to make at least an initial attempt to assess this construct empirically, by considering the extent to which the intuitions of a number of lecturers about the degree of initiative manifested in students' discourse acts would correlate with the ranking in the cline.

The rank order for the cline of initiative from lowest to highest initiative is presented below:

Acknowledge
Reply-inform
Inform
Comment
Counter-inform

As explained above, an acknowledge is an act which simply recognises a preceding contribution using short phrases such as *OK, Right,* and *Sure.* It was ranked lowest in Hubbard (1998). A reply-inform was ranked next lowest

because it requires predictable information and is usually a minimal response to a preceding closed display question. An inform was ranked higher than a reply-inform because it provides information beyond the minimum typical of reply-informs and usually expands on and clarifies a preceding act or turn. A comment was ranked second highest in terms of initiative because it reveals an evaluative view on the part of the student who makes it and normally provides unpredictable information that supports the comment made, while a counter-inform was claimed to show the highest initiative on the cline because when students directly challenge aspects of the content of the preceding act or turn, this can demonstrate strong critical engagement that can very considerably influence the direction of the discourse that follows. Elicits were not included in Hubbard's (1998) cline but as they are part of my analytical framework they were also tested in my empirical study of the validity of the cline.

Testing the cline

In testing the cline of initiative, ten lecturers in the Department of English were requested to rate 24 student turns (four turns for each type of act in the analytical framework), each turn consisting of a single discourse act (except one instance where two acts made up the whole turn), from 10 excerpts drawn from the data-base of first-year and third-year tutorials. The reason for selecting single-act turns rather than multiple-act turns was to make the impressionistic rating by the lecturers as straightforward as possible and to minimise contaminating effects from other acts in the same turn. Before the rating process commenced, the lecturers were asked to discuss how initiative in tutorials should be defined to ensure that they all had a general understanding of this concept .

The single-act turns to be rated were highlighted on the questionnaire to make it easier for the lecturers to identify them. The initiative assessment sheet with five columns was the last page of the questionnaire (Appendix 3).The first column in this assessment sheet had numbers 1-24 (each number representing

a different speech act in the excerpts. The next four columns were for rating the speech acts on a scale of 1 to 4 as follows: 1-no initiative, 2-very little initiative, 3-a fair degree of initiative and 4- a high degree of initiative. The lecturers had to indicate the degree of initiative they thought each speech act represented by ticking the appropriate column.

Findings

When the rating exercise was completed, the rating scores for the different discourse acts were added together to establish the overall degree of initiative for each of the six discourse acts. To get the total rating per discourse act, the number of ratings was multiplied by the value assigned to each act. The ratings for these six discourse acts produced a two grouping structure, namely counter-inform, comments, elicits and informs being high initiative-bearing acts, while reply-informs and acknowledges are low initiative-bearing acts, as shown by the ratings in Table 3.2

Table 3.2: Overall ratings per discourse act

Discourse acts	No initiative=1	Very little initiative=2	A fair degree of initiative=3	A high degree of initiative=4	Total
Counter-informs	1=1	6=12	11=33	22=88	134
Comments	1=1	4=8	13=39	16=64	112
Elicits	1=1	9=18	11=33	19=76	128
Informs		8=16	10=30	22=88	134
Reply-informs	4=4	12=24	16=48	5=20	96
Acknowledges	7=7	18=36	12=36	3=12	91

These ratings indicate that the intuitions of the lecturers about the degree of initiative manifested in students' discourse acts provide some support for the ranking in the cline of initiative. However, comments had the fourth highest rating instead of the second and informs shared the highest rating with counter-informs

instead of being ranked fourth. It is clear from Table 3.2 that two main groupings rather than a cline can be distinguished, namely counter-informs, comments, elicits and informs, on the one hand, and reply-informs and acknowledges, on the other. As a result, my study does not use the cline but a two-group contrast instead between the former group (labelled 'high-initiative' acts) and the latter (labelled 'low-initiative' acts).

3.7 Comments on the analytical framework

The purpose of this section is to comment on some of the issues that arise in the application of the analytical framework developed and used (§ 3.4). Because the main construct in this study is 'participation effectiveness', investigated in terms of students' number of discourse acts and turns, and also their initiative at discourse act and turn-taking level, the framework that was developed involved six discourse acts from Hubbard's (1998) framework and four initiative-bearing turn categories from Van Lier (1988). Integrating turns and discourse acts in the analytical framework of this study meant that certain 'rules of thumb' had to be applied in the analysis. Thus, for example, minimal turns which comprised less than the standard F-unit were counted as F-units, and so given a discourse act label, as long as they could be understood in terms of the preceding discourse, as in T111 [7] and [8]

Excerpt 39-T111

	I->
[Self-selection][6]Dorothy:	But this man, for me it says…
	E->
[Self-selection][7]Tutor:	…which page?
	I->
[Sequence][8]Dorothy:	First page.
	A->
[Sequence][9]Tutor:	OK!

Another point regarding unit segmentation is that, as in Lieber (1981), and as noted earlier in this chapter *that-* complement clauses, no matter how many other

clauses they contain, were not analysed as separate F-units, as in [18] below, which is analysed as just one discourse act :

Excerpt 40-T113

                                                      E->
[Sequence, allocation][17]Tutor: […]So, what do you think this article is all about…,

                                         yes sir?

                                                         I->
[Self-selection][18]Joe: I still think that in Buddhism they still teach

                                         or discriminate the left because they say the

                                         left part is the one which is bad and the right

                                         part is right.

                                         A->   E->
[Sequence, allocation][19]Tutor: OK!/ yes maam…?

                                                CI->   CI->
[Self-selection][20]Mavis: I was going to say it's not./ I don't think it's
                                                             I->
                                         about writing with the left hand./ As I said earlier

                                         on it's more about the good and the bad part,/or
                                         I->
                                         like they say the right part is good and the left part
                                                                            CI->
                                         is good./ So, I don't think it's about lefties writing with
                                                             I->
                                         left,/ and the right people still discriminating left/
                                                   I->
                                         because they say…

Joe and Mavis' turns are self-selections because they were not specifically called by name to the speech floor, as the tutor referred to male and female speakers in this tutorial group as sir/ madam. These two turns could have been taken by any female and male in this tutorial, but because the two students volunteered to make contributions, their turns were therefore coded as self-selections. This is one of the difficulties of   using a single video camera because it does not capture the whole tutorial group at once.

However, when a specific student was allocated a turn, a specific description of that student would be given, as in turn [49] below

Excerpt 41-T113

```
                                    I->              I->
[Sequence][46]Joyce:    Looking at this picture/ I can say that this picture somehow
                        advises people that in life they should know what the good
                                                              I->
                        things are and what the bad things are./ So that they could

                        make their choices in future.
                        A->
[Sequence][47]Tutor:    Aha!
                        A->
[Sequence][48]Joyce:    Yes.
                         A->                  E->
[Allocation][49]Tutor:  OK!/ so young man are you still on that point?(Closed referential)
       [50]Joe;         Yeah after the picture, I still stand on that point…
```

With regard to discourse acts, there were problems experienced with coding tutor acts which functioned as directives, as in T113 [35]

Excerpt 42-T113

```
                                          I->
[Sequence][35]Tutor:        […]Now let's look at the picture that goes hand in hand with
                                   I->                    D->
                            this article./This is the picture./ Look at that picture and what
                                         E->
                            you have written.[…] What can we say about…?
```

There were only three clear tutor directives in the tutorials and because my focus is on verbal interaction and directives by definition look for non-verbal responses. they were labeled in my transcripts but not included in the analyses..

As explained earlier (§ 3.5.2) distinguishing between informs and reply-informs was made possible by sharpening the definitions of the two acts. Recognising that reply-informs required minimal responses to preceding elicits made it easier to differentiate them from informs, which were defined in effect as a residual

category, covering everything that could not be categorised as any of the other five discourse acts.

Counter-informs and comments were separated by focusing on key aspects in their definitions. Counter-informs functioned as direct negation to preceding turns or acts, while comments evaluate, exemplify and expand the content of preceding turns or acts. In the example below, the difference between the two acts is clearly illustrated in Mark's reactions in [25] and [28] when refuting Tebogo's interpretation of Abigail and Proctor's relationship with just a single counter statement, whereas Tony's comment in [26] and the Tutor's in [29] are followed by informs to back them up.

Excerpt 43-T301

```
                                      A->                          I->
[Self-selection][23]Tutor:     OK!/ It also highlights selfishness./ Anybody to
                                                  E->
                               add to that?/ What about Abigail?
                                          I->
[Self-selection][24]Tebogo:    Actually, she was in love with Proctor.
                                        CI->
[Self-selection][25]Mark:      I do not think they were in love.
                                  C->            I->
[Self-selection][26]Tony:      It was lust./ The fact that they had an affair.
                                        A->
[Self-selection][27]Tebogo:    They had an affair.
                                        CI->
[Self-selection][28]Mark:      But there is nowhere where it is written.
                                  A->            C->                    I->
[Self-selection][29]Tutor:     Yeah!/ It is not necessarily an affair./ They are

                               just flirting.
```

To avoid wrong coding for acknowledge realised by a *yes* from a *yes* that is a reply-inform to an elicit, preceding discourse was taken into account, as in [29] above.

As explained earlier (§ 3.5.2) tutor elicits perform different functions, so they were therefore subdivided into closed display, closed referential and open referential questions. Although distinguishing between these questions was made easier by the typical features identified in their definitions, a problem was

experienced when they were combined in single turns, as in [3] below where there is an open referential question and two closed referential questions. The two closed referential questions require very specific information, as can be seen in phrases like *from the play, what do we see*. Although the tutor expects the responses to be within certain parameters, the degree of openness is not the same as the one required to answer the open referential question. The literature on question types does seem through on how difficult these distinctions are.

Excerpt 44-T114

[Sequence][3]Tutor:	[…] Why do you think it's education?(**Open referential**)/
	What from the play can convince you that it's education?
	(**Closed referential**)/
	What things do we see as part of his culture?
	(**Closed referential**)
	I->
[Self-selection][4]Benny:	I think somewhere in the play, he tells us that he would
	like to live a life with his wife sitting at table, eating with
	fork and knife, no longer using his fingers./ I think some-
	RI->
	how it shows that he's got education./ He also got a
	I-> I->
	different style of living,/ which is not the way of living in
	his own village.

It was also noticed that distinguishing between closed display questions and open referential questions in some instances was not easy because some open referential questions were asked in contexts where the tutor was trying to elicit fairly precise information, but there was still a degree of openness in the way response could be provided, as the following examples show:

Excerpt 45-T112

	E->
[Sequence][7]Tutor:	What are the techniques that the poet uses to achieve dramatic
	effect in this poem?(**Open referential)**

```
                                                        RI->
[Self-selection][8]Baboloki:        I think the writer uses punctuation to pay attention to details.
                                                        E->
[Sequence][9]Tutor:                 Can you say that again?(Closed display)
                                                        I->
[Sequence][10]Baboloki:             I think the poet uses punctuation in various places to help us to

                                    pay attention to details.
                                                        E->
[Sequence][11]Tutor:                What else?(Open referential).
                                                        RI->
[Sequence][12]Baboloki:             The use of sentences.

                                    A->        E->
[Sequence][13]Tutor:                Right,/ such as what?(Open referential)
                                                        RI->
[Sequence][14]Baboloki:             The ringing of the telephone, the crushing sound of…
```

Ellis (1994:695) describes questions such as[11] and [13] as 'pseudo-questions' because they seem to be open, but in fact are closed. This shows that differentiating them is a matter of degree and the analyst has to struggle with this matter of degree.

3.8 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to present, discuss and exemplify the research method used in the study. The research design, hypotheses, research focus and data collection procedures were presented first and then the analytical framework, followed by discussion of a preliminary empirical test of the validity of an intuitive construct in the background of this study, the cline of initiative. The result of this test provided a basis for positing for the purposes of my study not a cline but a two-group division for the analysis of discourse act quality, namely between four high-initiative and two low-initiative acts. The final section of the chapter considered certain problems identified in the application of the analytical framework.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

The main objective of this chapter is to present and discuss the findings of the research, where the term 'finding' refers to both the results and the discussion of results presented in relation to the four hypotheses formulated earlier (§1.3). This chapter is divided into four sections. In the first three, the Year of Study hypothesis (H_1), the Student Gender hypothesis (H_2) and the Tutor Gender hypothesis (H_3) are considered in turn, focusing in each case firstly on the statistical test results and then on the discussion. The discussion in each case is organised in terms of subsections that deal with student participation and initiative in terms of discourse acts and then in terms of turns. As explained earlier (§ 3.4.1), the central construct reflected in these hypotheses, 'participation effectiveness', incorporates both the amount ('participation') and the quality of participation ('initiative').

The fourth section focuses on the Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis, which is explored in a more qualitative manner and although certain descriptive statistics are provided, it is not tested statistically, as there are all sorts of variables that come into play here, including the interaction of different discourse acts and factors such as tutor personality, experience and teaching style. The fifth section presents the findings with regard to the conjunctive cohesion analyses, undertaken to explore the possible link between specified cohesion features of students' spoken discourse and students' participation effectiveness. This chapter ends with a review of the key findings of the study.

4.1 Hypothesis 1: The Year of Study hypothesis

The Year of Study hypothesis is repeated here for convenience:

> H_1: *Year of Study hypothesis*
>
> The third-year students will participate more effectively in tutorials than the first-year students.

4.1.1 Discourse acts

This section provides the results for the first-year and third-year students' discourse act participation (the frequency of discourse acts they produce and the distribution across the six act categories) and their initiative (their perceived willingness to participate in an interaction, as measured in terms of high-initiative acts, namely counter-informs, comments, elicits, and informs as opposed to low-initiative acts, namely reply-informs and acknowledges. Thus the results presented and discussed in this section constitute the findings on the main construct, students' participation effectiveness, specifically with regard to discourse acts.

4.1.1.1 Discourse act participation

In Table 4.1 below, the overall results for the first-year and third-year students' discourse acts are provided.

Table 4.1: Students' discourse acts (H1)

Discourse acts	CI	C	E	I	Total: high initiative acts	RI	A	Total: low initiative acts	Total
1st years	8 (1.7%)	21 (4.6%)	4 (0.9%)	357 (78.0%)	390 (85.2%)	50 (10.9%)	18 (3.9%)	68 (14.8%)	458
3rd years	9 (1.6%)	20 (3.4%)	18 (3.1%)	498 (85.9%)	545 (94.0%)	24 (4.1%)	11 (1.9%)	35 (6.0%)	580

Because the data for the first-year and third-year groups are based on the same number of tutorials and therefore on virtually identical amounts of time available for each, for this hypothesis a direct comparison of the overall totals of discourse acts indicates that third-year students produced a considerably higher number of acts than the first-years (580 to 458). With respect to the total number of acts, then, the Year of Study hypothesis could be said to have been supported to an extent, although when two totals such as these are compared, requirements for statistical testing are not met and so findings need to be treated with particular caution.

4.1.1.2 Discourse act initiative

General points regarding the distribution of the different discourse acts in each group will be discussed in this section, as this is very relevant to the issue of student initiative.

The total scores in Table 4.1 indicate that by far the largest number of discourse acts were informs and that both groups had a similarly high percentage of them. These occurred as students were providing information in support of their arguments. By way of illustration, in Excerpt 1-T301, the students were discussing literature questions based on *The Crucible.* Mark and Tony used a lot of informs to challenge and defend their points of view.

Excerpt 1-T301

```
                                              CI->
[Sequence][22]Mark:        Not values, lustful desires emanating from
                                                    I->
                           the facts like eh… /all he wants is land and more money./
                                              I->
                           He just wants to acquire more money at the expense of

                           other people getting poorer./
                                                    I->
                           Which means ill-health, bad sanitation and so on./
```

I->
And which are direct results of him taking their own
land./
I->   I->
He actually wants people to die quicker/ so that he
I->
could win their own land./ Such thoughts show that

the spirit of godliness is not within him.

C->   I->
[Sequence][32] Tony: That is why that thing is adultery, /having an affair

with a married man.
CI->
[Sequence][33]Mark: But nowhere is it mentioned that it goes on and it

stops.

CI->   I->
[Sequence][34]Tony: No, there is./ I mean… by reading the book one can
I->
conclude that./But somewhere it was mentioned in

the text that John Proctor was asked to mention the
I->   I->
ten commandments./He did as he was told,/ but failed
E->
to mention one commandment./ Why did he fail to
I->
mention that commandment?/ It's because he was
I->
aware that it speaks with him./He was aware that

' I did this thing and I cannot say it'.

As seen in the excerpt above, Mark and Tony used many more informs than any other discourse acts. The first-years also used a lot of informs to support their arguments when, for example, discussing the article they had to deal with. In turns [18] and [20] below, Joe and Mavis used informs in their responses to the tutor elicits.

Excerpt 2-T113

E->   E->
[Sequence][17] Tutor: So, what do you think this article is all about?/Yes sir…?
I->
[Self-selection][18] Joe: I still think that in Buddhism they still teach or they still

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discriminate the left because they say the left part is the

                                                                   I->

one which is bad and the right part is right. /So it makes

the people who are left handed always feel left out/
            I->   I->
because they are barred./I think so.

       A->   E->

[Sequences][19]Tutor: Ok!/ Yes maam…?
                   CI->   I->
[Self-selection][20]Mavis: I was going to say it's not /I… I don't think it's about
                                      I->
writing with the left hand,/ as I said earlier on./ It's
            I->   I->
more about the good and the bad part/ or like they

say the right part is good and the left part is bad./
            I->
So, I don't think it's about lefties writing with left and

right people still discriminating left, because they say..

Despite informs being by far the most frequent acts in all the tutorials, the third-year students produced a noticeably higher percentage of elicits, while the first-years had more than double the percentages for the low-initiative reply-informs and acknowledges, as shown in Table 4.1 above.

The distribution of the students' discourse acts as just discussed is directly relevant to the second aspect of participation effectiveness, namely the quality of participation in terms of how much initiative the students reveal (i.e. in their proportions of high-initiative acts relative to low- initiative acts). As seen in Table 4.1 the first-years produced 390 high-initiative acts to 68 low-initiative ones, while the third-years produced 545 of the former and 35 of the latter. Statistical testing indicated a very significant difference (Chi-square=21.26 (df=1); p=0.0001) between the two groups. Thus in terms of initiative support can be found for the Year of Study hypothesis.

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4.1.2 Turns

Turn participation and turn initiative for first-year and third-year students are the focus of this section. Thus the results presented and discussed in this section constitute the findings on the main construct, students' participation effectiveness, with regard to turn-taking.

4.1.2.1 Turn participation

Table 4.2 presents the number of turns taken by first-year and third-year students. It also presents the figures for the mean length (i.e. number of discourse acts) per turn for first and third-year students.

Table 4.2: Student turns (H_1)

Turns	Self-selection	Allocation	Sequence	Total initiative-bearing acts	Non-initiative bearing turns	Total	Mean length of turn
First-years	68 (35.1%)	4 (2.1%)	99 (51.0%)	171	23 (11.9%)	194	2.4
Third-years	82 (48.8%)	7 (4.2%)	70 (41.7%)	159	9 (5.4%)	168	3.5

Although the third-year students had fewer turns, their mean length of discourse act per turn was considerably higher (3.5) than that of the first-years (2.4), suggesting that overall, they spoke more than the first-years, a supposition that is supported by the discourse act participation overall result above (§ 4.1.1).

Despite this, however, specifically with regard to the amount of turns, the Year of Study hypothesis was not supported.

4.1.2.2 Turn initiative

With regard to turn taking initiative, third-year students had higher percentages for self-selections and allocations and they also had fewer non-initiative turns as shown in Table 4.2. The higher percentage for self-selection for third-years implies that they got more speech floor and the higher percentage for sequence, on the other hand, shows that first-years were able to hold the floor space more than the third-years.

In the first-year tutorials, there were fewer allocations by students and allocating turns to the next speaker was done mostly by the tutors. Many of these allocations resulted in non-initiative turns, which were more for first-years than third-years. Excerpt 3-T111, turns [28] and [32] are examples of non-initiative turns:

Excerpt 3-T111

```
                                          E->
[Sequence, allocation][27]Tutor:      Why is he called a simple, primitive brutal soul?/
                                          I->
                                      Dorothy wants an explanation, Tsweni.
                                          I->
                      [28]Tsweni:     […] the accent can really tell, its

                                      kind of like, I mean …I'm really stuck.
                                                  E->
[Sequence]            [29]Tutor:      […]Why do they call him a simple, primitive brutal soul?
                                              I->
[Self-selection]      [30]Dorothy:    I think according to them he looked like the way he

                                      dressed.
                                                  E->
[Sequence, allocation]  [31]Tutor:    And did they finally get him on their side?/ Because
                                          I->
                                      we are told about him being smart./ And what makes
                                          E->                  E->
                                      you say he was smart?/ Was he smart, Baboloki?

                                          RI->
                      [32]Baboloki:   I don't know.
```

Turns [28] and [32] result from allocated turns and therefore show no student initiative.

As can be seen in Table 4.2 very few (5.4%) third-year turns were non-initiative bearing, while the proportion amongst the first-years was more than twice as high (11.9%). The statistical result also indicated a significant difference (Chi-square=3.95 (df=1); p=0.0469) for initiative bearing as opposed to non-initiative turns in favour of the third-years.

The non-initiative category, as explained in Chapter 3, occurred when the preceding turn was an allocation, where the next speaker was specified by name, as in turns [28] and [32] above and also in Excerpt 4-T312 turn [52] below:

Excerpt 4-T312

```
                                              I->
[Sequence, allocation][51]Tutor:      Let's start with Mpho.
                                            I->
             [52]Mpho:          I don't think a child that's been locked up in a room

                                would acquire language because in language

                                acquisition…
                                            I->
[Allocation]         [53 ]Tutor:      We can't hear you, Mpho.
                                            I->
 [Sequence]          [54] Mpho:       You acquire language.
```

Turn [52] resulted from the tutor allocation and so did not reflect any initiative on the part of the student and this therefore is a typical example of a non-initiative-bearing turn.   In the next example, even though the next speaker is verbally selected by the tutor and she (Didimas) is on the speech floor, because Dorothy takes that turn (i.e. [26]) voluntarily, it is a self-selection.

Excerpt 5-T112

```
                                         I->
[Sequence] [24]Didimas:          […] I think she is able to tell that the colour is

                                 African from the accent.
```

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```
                                            E->                    E->
[Sequence, allocation][25] Tutor:        Is she really able to tell? / What makes you

                                         say that, Didimas?
                                                      I->
[Self-selection][26]Dorothy:             I think she is just suspecting that the caller might

                                          be an African.
```

4.1.3 Conclusion

With regard to discourse acts, the third-year students produced more discourse acts than the first-years and in terms of initiative, they used elicits and informs (i.e. high-initiative acts) more frequently than the first-year students who had many more of the low-initiative acts (i.e. reply-informs and acknowledges). As a result, third-year students were seen to show significantly more initiative than the first-years. The Year of Study hypothesis was therefore supported in terms of discourse act participation and discourse act initiative and because it is these two constructs that define participation effectiveness, it is therefore concluded as far as discourse acts are concerned the third-year students participated more effectively than the first-years.

In so far as turn participation is concerned, the statistical result indicated that the total number of turns produced by the third-year students was not significantly different to that of the first-years. However, the third-years showed significantly higher turn-taking initiative. Overall, then, the Year of Study hypothesis was supported in terms of discourse act participation, discourse act initiative and turn initiative. This finding supports Webb's (1983), which also revealed differences in participation between first-years and third-years, even though his focus was only on the amount of talk time students used in their tutorials relative to their tutors. He did not take account of the students contributions within turns, as in the present study.

A very important implication of the finding showing that the third-years participated more effectively is that this provides a considerable degree of validation to the analytical framework developed in this study. Firstly, one would expect the third-years to perform better than the first-years for a variety of reasons, including longer exposure to English as the LoLT at tertiary level, more confidence in using this language also in spoken interaction, greater acculturation to the university environment and the fact that they are a more select group, having successfully completed two years in the Department of English. The fact that the analytical findings with respect to this hypothesis align closely with these general expectations indicates that the framework does indeed appear to measure key aspects of discourse performance that in this context can be expected to improve over time.

The validity of the analytical framework also derives support from a second source, namely the Department of English lecturers' impressions of the first-year and third-year tutorials. As seen earlier (§ 3.4), the lecturers evaluated the third-year tutorials more highly than the first-years. Given that the framework is in effect an attempt to explicate analytically what kind of features observers are responding to when they make impressionistic evaluations of the quality of students' discourse acts, the results with respect to the Year of Study hypothesis are not only of interest in themselves, but also provide a considerable degree of validation for the analytical framework.

4.2 Hypothesis 2: The Student Gender hypothesis

In this section, the statistical results for the second hypothesis, The Student Gender hypothesis are provided. This is followed by a brief discussion of the discourse act participation and discourse act initiative findings. The last part of the section focuses on turn participation and turn initiative.

Hypothesis 2 (H_2) was formulated as a directional hypothesis because of the generally consistent findings in the literature (§ 2.3.1), which suggest that males tend to outperform females in mixed-gender interactions. This hypothesis is reproduced below for convenience.

H_2:   *Student Gender hypothesis*

The male students will participate more effectively in tutorials than the female students.

4.2.1 Discourse acts

The focus of this section is the result of the male and female students' discourse act participation (i.e. the frequency of discourse acts and their distribution across the six categories) and discourse act initiative (i.e. the degree of involvement represented by each type of act). Thus the results presented and discussed in this section constitute the findings on the main construct, students' participation effectiveness, with regard to discourse acts.

4.2.1.1 Discourse act participation

In Table 4.3 below, the figures presented indicate that the female students used more discourse acts than the male students in both first-year and third-year tutorials, but both groups had very high percentages for informs.

Table 4.3 Students' discourse acts (H_2)

Tutorials	CI	C	E	I	Total: high-initiative acts	RI	A	Total: low-initiative acts	Total
First and third-year females - (38)	8 (1.4%)	21 (3.8%)	10 (1.8%)	451 (81.3%)	490 (88.3%)	53 (9.5%)	12 (2.2%)	**65** (11.7%)	**555**
First and third-year males - (32)	9 (1.9%)	20 (4.2%)	12 (2.5%)	404 (83.6%)	445 (92.1%)	21 (4.3%)	17 (3.5%)	**38** (7.9%)	**483**

The females used more discourse acts than the males, yet it was hypothesised that the males would participate more than the females. However, in terms of discourse acts per individual student, the average number per female student was 14.6 and 15.1 per male student, indicating only a slight difference between the two groups. Thus in terms of discourse act participation, the Student Gender hypothesis was supported if no account was taken of the disparity in the number of male and female students, but it was not supported if this important disparity is considered. This finding, therefore highlights an important factor (i.e. gender imbalance) that needs to be taken into consideration, but which in most previous studies has not been accommodated (e.g. De Klerk 1995a and 1995b).

4.2.1.2 Discourse act initiative

In terms of initiative at discourse act level, the males used all four high-initiative discourse acts (§ 3.5.2) more frequently than the females. The male students also had a low percentage for the low-initiative acts than the females. The statistical result on comparing the proportions of high-initiative to low-initiative acts in each group indicated a significant difference (Chi-square =3.85 (df=1); p=0.0497) between the males and females, with the males using relatively more high-initiative acts than the females.

4.2.2 Turns

Again, in this section, the main construct of this study, participation effectiveness, is discussed in terms of the frequency of turns and turn initiative.

4.2.2.1 Turn participation

The male and female students' turn participation presented in Table 4.4 below indicates that the females had a higher number of turns than the males, but on a per student basis the total numbers are virtually identical. The means per student

for allocations and sequences were higher for males than for females, as shown by the values given in brackets in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Student turns (H$_2$)

Students	Self-selection	Allocation	Sequence	Total initiative-bearing-turns	Non-initiative bearing turn	Total
First and third-year females (38)	100(2.6)	4(0.1)	83(2.2)	187 (4.9)	12(0.3)	**199**
First and third-year males (32)	50(1.6)	7(0.2)	86(2.7)	143(4.5)	20(0.6)	**163**

The higher mean value per female student for self-selection indicates that the female students got onto the speech floor more often than the males, but the larger number of sequences on the part of the males showed that they were able to interact over a succession of turns with another participant once they had got onto it. In terms of turn participation in general then, the Student Gender hypothesis was not supported.

4.2.2.2 Turn-taking initiative

The females and the males showed initiative through all three initiative-bearing turns. The females also had a lower means for non-initiative-bearing turns than the males and the statistical test indicated a strong tendency towards a significant difference (Chi-square= 3.59(df=1); p=0.0581) in favour of the females. Thus, in terms of turn taking initiative the Student Gender hypothesis was not supported and there is some support for its opposite.

4.2.3 Conclusion

In terms of the discourse act participation, the Student Gender hypothesis was not supported whether the disparity between the numbers of males and females

was taken into account or not. With regard to discourse act initiative, the males used relatively more high-initiative acts than the females, thus providing support for the Student Gender hypothesis at this level. However, in terms of turn-taking initiative, there was a strong tendency towards a significant difference in favour of females. Thus in this respect the Student Gender hypothesis was not supported and there was some support for its opposite.

This finding differs from De Klerk's (1994 and 1995b) studies in which White males dominated the speech floor by having more and longer turns than Black males and females. In these studies, there were more males than females (e.g. 38 males and 23 females), but the gender imbalance in them was not considered as an important variable, as in the present study.

4.3 Hypothesis 3: The Tutor Gender hypothesis

The discussion of this hypothesis is in two parts. The first part explores students' participation effectiveness (irrespective of their gender) in male-led versus female-led tutorials, the second part explores this aspect while taking into account the gender of the students as well. The Tutor Gender hypothesis was formulated generally as follows:

> *H_3: Tutor Gender hypothesis*
>
> There is a relationship between tutor gender and student participation effectiveness in tutorials.

This hypothesis is however tested in terms of two sub-hypothesis, namely H_3 (a) and H_3 (b).

H_3 (a):   Students' participation effectiveness will differ according to the gender of their tutor.

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H$_3$(b): Students' participation effectiveness will differ according to whether or not their gender is the same as that of their tutor.

4.3.1 Effects of tutor gender on students' participation irrespective of gender (H$_3$ (a))

Table 4.5 below presents the tutor and student discourse acts in the first and third-year tutorials.

Table 4.5 Male versus female tutor and student discourse acts

Tutorials	Tutor discourse acts	Student discourse acts	Total acts
Male-led tutorials T105, T114, T116, T301, T306, T310.	215(45.9%)	253 (54.1%)	468
Female-led tutorials T111, T112, T 113, T115, T 117, T305, T311, T312,T 314.	660(45.7%)	785(54.3%)	1445

4.3.1.1 Discourse act participation

The discourse act percentages of the students and the tutors in the male-led and female-led tutorials are almost exactly the same. Thus the Tutor Gender hypothesis in terms of the number of discourse acts in the male-led and female-led tutorials was not supported.

4.3.1.2 Discourse act initiative

The figures presented in Table 4.6 show that the students in the male-led tutorials had slightly higher percentages for three of the four high-initiative discourse acts, but both groups had very high percentages for informs and relatively low percentages for acknowledges.

Table 4.6 Students' discourse acts (H$_3$)

Tutorials	CI	C	E	I	Total: high-initiative acts	RI	A	Total: low-initiative acts	Total
Male-led tutorials	7 (2.8%)	13 (5.1%)	8 (3.2%)	197 (77.9%)	225 (88.9%)	21 (8.3%)	7 2.8%)	28 (11.1%)	253
Female-led tutorials	10 (1.3%)	28 (3.6%)	14 (1.8%)	658 (83.8%)	710 (90.4%)	53 (6.8%)	22 (2.8%)	75 (9.6%)	785

The statistical test on the relative proportions of high initiative acts to low-initiative acts indicated no significant difference (Chi-square=0.34 (df=1); p=0.5598) between the students in the male-led and female-led tutorials. Thus in terms of the Tutor Gender hypothesis, whether the tutors were male or female was a factor that did not appear to have any effect on the students' discourse act initiative.

4.3.1.3 Turns

Participation effectiveness in this section is discussed in relation to turn participation (the overall frequency of turn-taking) and turn-taking initiative, measured by distinguishing the initiative-bearing from the non-initiative-bearing turns with respect to the male-led and female-led tutorials.

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4.3.1.4 Turn participation

Table 4.7 below presents the tutor and student turns in the first-year and third-year tutorials.

Table 4.7 Male versus female tutor and student turns $H_3(a)$

Tutorials	Tutor turns	Student turns	Total turns
Male-led tutorials T105, T114, T116, T301, T306, T310	72(44.4%)	90(55.6%)	162
Female-led tutorials T111, T112, T 113, T115, T 117, T305, T311, T312,T 314	250(48%)	271(52%)	521

The students in the male-led tutorials took proportionally more turns than the students in the female-led tutorials. However, the statistical test revealed that this was not at all a significant difference (Chi-square=0.49 (df1); p=0.4839). There was therefore no support for the Tutor Gender hypothesis in terms of number of student turns relative to tutor turns.

4.3.1.5 Turn-taking initiative

The figures presented in Table 4.8 indicate that the students in both types of tutorials showed initiative through self-selections and sequences.

Table 4.8 Student turns in male and female tutor tutorials (H_3)

Tutorials	Self-selections	Allocations	Sequence	Total initiative-bearing turns	Non-initiative-bearing turns	Total
Male-led tutorials	45 (50%)	0 (0%)	39 (43.3%)	84	6(6.7%)	90
Female-led tutorials	113 (41.7%)	2 (0.7%)	128(47.2%)	243	28(10.3%)	271

The students in the female-led tutorials had a higher percentage for non-initiative-bearing turns, but the statistical test with respect to initiative and non-initiative-bearing turns showed no significant difference (Chi-square=0.68 (df1);

p=0.4096) between the two groups. Thus male as opposed to female tutors had no different effects on students' and the Tutor Gender hypothesis in terms of initiative at turn taking level was not supported.

4.3.1.6 Conclusion

The conclusion presented here covers the first part of the Tutor Gender hypothesis with respect to the male-led versus female-led tutorials. Students' participation effectiveness was explored with respect to this hypothesis in these tutorials. The amount of discourse acts indicated no significant difference between the students in the male-led and female-led tutorials. Also, the statistical test on the relative proportions of high-initiative to low-initiative acts showed no significant difference between the students in the male-led and female-led tutorials. There was also no support for the Tutor Gender hypothesis in terms of the number of student turns relative to tutor turns and the statistical result showed no significant difference with respect to initiative and non-initiative-bearing turns in the male-led and female-led tutorials. All in all, then, this part of the Tutor Gender hypothesis was not supported in terms of any of the four discourse features (number of acts and turns and act and turn initiative): in other words, tutor gender had no effect on students' participation effectiveness.

4.3.2 Effects of tutor gender on students of different genders (H$_3$ (b))

In this section the focus shifts from considering tutor gender in terms of all students to considering whether having a tutor of their own gender affected students differently to having a tutor of the opposite gender.

4.3.2.1 Discourse act participation

The figures presented in Table 4.9 below show that the male students had a higher frequency of discourse acts in the male-led tutorials, but in the female-led

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tutorials female students used more discourse acts than the males. This pattern remains in place also once the necessary adjustment has been made to allow for the differences in numbers of the two groups (bracketed values provide the mean number of acts per student there being 11 males and 11 females in the male-led tutorials and 21 males and 27 females in the female-led tutorials).

Table 4.9 Male and female student discourse acts (H_3(b))

Tutorials	Student discourse acts		
Male-led	Male Students 187(17.0)	Female Students 46(4.2)	Totals 233
Female-led	296(14.1)	492(18.2)	788

The statistical result indicated a very significant difference (Chi-square=129.79 (df1); p<0.0001) between the male and female students' discourse act participation in the male-led and female-led tutorials. The females' mean values in the female-led tutorials were four times higher than those of the females in the male-led tutorials. In the male-led tutorial the male students also did better than the males in the female-led tutorials. The Tutor Gender hypothesis was therefore strongly supported with respect to student gender as the dependent variable in terms of discourse act participation.

3.2.2 Discourse act initiative

Table 4.10 presents the discourse act initiative performance of the male and female students in the male-led tutorials.

Table 4.10 Discourse acts in male-led tutorials (H3(b))

Students	C I	C	E	I	Total: high initiative acts	RI	A	Total: low initiative acts	Total
Males	6 (3.2%)	10 (5.3%)	7 (3.8%)	148 (79.2%)	171 (91.5%)	10 (5.3%)	6 (3.2%)	16 (8.5%)	187
Females	1 (1.5%)	3 (4.5%)	1 (1.5%)	49 (74.3%)	54 (81.8%)	11 (16.7%)	1 (1.5%)	12 (18.2%)	66

The males and females in the male-led tutorials showed initiative through all four high initiative discourse acts, even though the males had higher percentages of these than the females. Statistical testing showed a strong tendency toward a significant difference (Chi-square= 3.67 (df=1); p=0.0554) between the two groups with regard to initiative. This was largely because the males used more counter-informs, comments and elicits and fewer reply-informs than the females. The Tutor Gender hypothesis was therefore supported with respect to discourse act initiative in the male-led tutorials.

Table 4.11 Discourse acts in female- led tutorials (H3(b))

Students	CI	C	E	I	Total: high initiative discourse acts	RI	A	Total: low initiative discourse acts	Total
Males	3 (1.0%)	10 (3.4%)	5 (1.7%)	256 (86.5%)	274 (92.6%)	11 (3.7%)	11 (3.7%)	22 (7.4%)	296
Females	6 (1.2%)	18 (3.7%)	9 (1.8%)	402 (82.4%)	435 (89.1%)	42 (8.6%)	11 (2.3%)	53 (10.9%)	488

The males and females in the female-led tutorials used all four high-initiative discourse acts with slightly higher percentages for the females in three of the four high-initiative discourse acts. However, the statistical test (Chi-square= 2.12 (df=1); p= 0.1454) indicated no significant difference between the two groups. This is largely because the males and females used similarly large numbers of informs. The females used a much higher percentage of reply-informs than the males, but this was not enough to generate a significant overall result. The second part of the Tutor Gender hypothesis therefore was not supported with respect to discourse act initiative in the female-led tutorials.

4.3.2.3 Turns

Participation effectiveness with respect to turns is now considered.

4.3.2.4 Turn participation

Table 4.12 below presents the frequencies and proportions of male and female turns per student in male-led and female-led tutorials.

Table 4.12 Male and female student turns (H_3(b))

Tutorial	Student turns		
Male-led	Male students	Female students	Totals
	51 (4.6)	39 (3.5)	90
Female-led	102 (4.9)	169 (6.3)	271

The Chi-square result indicated a very significant difference (Chi-square=9.25 (df=1); p=0.0024) between the male and female students. In the male-led tutorials, the male turns per student were higher than those of the females. In the female-led tutorials, the female turns per student were higher than the male turns per student, thus confirming that the tutors tended to have more positive effects on students of the same gender.

The figures in Table 4.13 below show that in the male-led tutorials the females self-selected more than the males. The males, on the other hand, had twice as high a percentage for sequences. This implies that the females got more speech floor and the males maintained it.

Table 4.13 Male-led tutorials (H$_3$(b))

Tutorials	Self-selections	Allocations	Sequences	Total: initiative-bearing turns	Total: Non-initiative bearing turns	Total
Male students	21 (41.2%)	0 (0%)	29 (56.9%)	50 (98.1)	1 (1.9%)	51
Female students	24 (61.5%)	0 (0%)	10 (25.6%)	34 (87.2%)	5 (12.8%)	39

The figures presented in Table 4.14 show that in the female-led tutorials, the female students performed better than the males in self-selections, but in terms of sequences the males had a higher percentage which means again that they interacted more with other participants over a succession of turns.

Table 4.14 Female-led tutorials (H$_3$(b)

Tutorials	Self-selections	Allocations	Sequences	Total: initiative-bearing turns	Non-initiative bearing turns	Total
Male students	34 (31.5%)	0 (0%)	53 (49.1%)	87 (80.6%)	21 (19.4%)	108
Female students	80 (43.5%)	1 (0.5%)	82 (44.6%)	163 (88.6%)	21 (11.4%)	184

4.3.2.5 Turn-taking initiative

In the male-led tutorials the male students used larger proportions of initiative-bearing turns and in the female-led tutorials this was the case with the female students. However, statistical testing indicated that these differences were not

significant in the male-led tutorials (Chi-square= 2.63 (df=1); p=0.1049) or the female-led tutorials, although in the latter there is a tendency toward significance (Chi-square= 2.94 (df=1);p=0.0864). In sum, then, the second part of the Tutor Gender hypothesis was not supported with respect to turn taking initiative.

4.3.2.6 Conclusion

The Tutor Gender Hypothesis has been explored in two parts. The first part considered the effects of tutor gender on the participation of students irrespective of gender, while the second part explored whether tutors had positive effects on students of the same gender than on students of the opposite gender.

The overall result of the first part of the Tutor Gender hypothesis seems to suggest that students' participation effectiveness irrespective of their gender was not affected by the gender of the tutors. However, with respect to the second part of this hypothesis, the male and female tutors had positive effects on students of the same gender in discourse act and turn participation. Similarly, in De Klerk (1995b) the female students had proportionately more turns with the female tutor than with the male tutor, suggesting that the female tutor had positive effects on the female students. In terms of initiative at these two levels, the tutors had no positive effects on students of the same gender. The first part of the Tutor Gender hypothesis was therefore not supported on all features of participation effectiveness, while the second part of this hypothesis was supported on only two of the four features (i.e. discourse act and turn participation).

4.4 Hypothesis 4: Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis

The focus in this section is on the Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis, repeated here for convenience.

H_4: *Tutor Behaviour hypothesis*

There is a relationship between tutor discourse behaviour and student participation effectiveness in tutorials.

Unlike the other three hypotheses of the study, in this one the independent variable is not a simple, objectively defined category such as the year of study, student gender or tutor gender, but rather a complex set of features which interact dynamically in the ongoing discourse with student participation features. Tutor discourse behaviour tends to vary from tutorial to tutorial depending on the discussion questions as well as the way in which the students respond to those questions and in addition, there are all sorts of variables that relate to tutor personality, experience and teaching style, which are dynamic factors. Therefore this hypothesis requires more qualitative analysis and interpretation than the first three, although here, too, some quantitative analysis is provided to assist interpretation.

The Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis was formulated as a non-directional hypothesis, even though in the research literature the use of open referential questions have been shown to enhance student participation in interactions.

The analysis of tutor discourse behaviour in the present study will focus on how the use of certain types of questions by the different tutors influence students' discourse output and also contribute to their participation in the tutorials. An attempt will also be made to find out whether tutors use features such as the following which have been identified in the research literature as affecting students' participation negatively, and whether they have similar effects in the tutorials:

the use of polar and tag questions (§ 2.4); and excessive
use of display questions and form-focused feedback (§ 2.4).

The use of open referential questions have been associated in the literature with effective classroom discourse (Cullen 1998, Fisher 1996, Kasanga 1996a, Kinginger 1994, Tichapondwa 2008 and Webb et al 2004). What is investigated here is how tutor discourse behaviour through the different types of questions might influence students' discourse performance and initiative in the tutorials. Research has shown that different types of questions posed by teachers contribute differently to communication in the classroom (Maley 2009, Suter 2001). In analysing tutor discourse behaviour, first and third-year tutorial transcripts are used to establish how tutor discourse behaviour through different types of questions identified earlier (§ 3.5) influenced students' participation effectiveness. This part of investigation provides a quantitative analysis of the tutor discourse behaviour which is presented in the next section.

Given the complexity of tutor discourse behaviour as a variable and the need to consider and illustrate how it interacts with student participation during tutorials, it was necessary to focus on a representative selection of the tutorials, namely T112, T114, T301 and T311. These were selected because they were balanced in terms of first-years and third-years and conducted by a male and a female tutor. These are variables investigated in this study and that is why the selection of the four tutorials seemed appropriate.

Before analysing tutor discourse behaviour, an explanation of how and why the discourse act, elicit, was subdivided into different types of questions and the definitions of these questions are briefly discussed. Elicit, which is defined in the analytical framework (§ 3.5.2) as an act that requests a verbal response (which could be any of the six discourse acts) was subdivided into different types of questions because tutor elicits can fulfill different functions such as encouraging students' participation, enhancing their understanding of academic content being discussed and also stimulating and developing their thinking. These questions are closed display, closed referential and open referential questions.

Closed display questions, for instance, require very precise, limited information known to the tutor and the students are expected to display whether they possess a certain knowledge item or not (Dalton-Puffer 2007:95) (3.5.2), as in T112 [26]

Excerpt 6-T112

```
                                    I->               E->
[Sequence][26]Tutor:         Yes,/ who asks that question? (Closed display)
                                              RI->
[Sequence][27]Dorothy:       It is the landlady.
```

The closed display question in turn [26] produced a short response confirming research literature findings on closed display questions (Long and Sato 1983; Maley 2009, Suter 2001) that such questions often produce one correct response, as in [27] where a very specific response, the content of which is also known to the tutor, is provided by the student. Reply-informs, as in [27], are the typical minimal responses usually to closed display questions as they ask for no expansion beyond the minimal information required.

Closed referential questions also require a choice from a limited set of closed responses, but which choice should be made is unknown to the tutor and this aspect distinguishes them from closed display questions. In T114 [15], the closed referential question requires a closed response which is not known to the tutor.

Excerpt 7-T114

```
                                    E->
[Sequence][15]Tutor:     […] What do you want to say about this cultural alienation?

                          (Open referential)/
                                    E->
                          Does  it only show in the bride price issue?(Closed referential)/
                                    E->
                          Or does it show in the other things? (Closed referential)

                                    I->              I->                      I->
[Sequence][16]Benny:  The way he greets/ and proposes love./ That he wants to marry

                          like a White man./
```

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I->   I->
He gradually presents himself as a very civilized man./He does
                     I->
not know his tradition /or customary way of falling in love with a girl,/
                    I->
that paying a bride price, you are my woman ,or you are my wife.

The student's response in [16] is elaborate, partly because the tutor asked an open referential and closed referential questions. An appropriate response to the closed referential questions would have been either *yes it does* or *no, it does n't*, which would have been limited, closed responses not known to the tutor. The student's response, however, shows that he only responded to the open referential question.

Open referential questions, on the other hand, are defined by Siposova (2007:34) 'as questions to which the response is not known by the teacher', and 'to which a variety (often an infinite number) of answers are possible'(Hung 2004:5). As explained earlier (§ 3.5.2), the purpose of asking these questions is to find out some unknown information. Suter (2001) describes them as high cognitive level questions because they involve interpretation and evaluation of content being discussed, as in T311[30]

Excerpt 8-T311

                                 E->
[Sequence][30]Tutor: Anything that you want to say again about imitation?

                                (Open referential)/
                                 E->
         What about second language acquisition?(**Open referential**)/
                           E->
         How would we transfer that idea of imitation into the second

         Language classroom?(**Open referential**)

                          I->   I->
[Sequence][31]Mmathabo: The teacher would just say…/like you said in class, we are

          using things that are around us, i.e. the chalkboard./ She
                 I->   I->
         would actually say, 'what this class?'/ Because he told us before

          that is a chalkboard, we'd actually have to say it's a chalkboard,/

The student's response to the open referential questions is elaborate compared to the response to the closed display question in T112 [26] above.

In the next section, the quantitative analysis of the first-year tutorials, namely T112 and T114 is undertaken. This analysis is followed by a discussion which links the quantities with the qualitative discussion of T112 and T114.

4.4.1 Quantitative analysis of first-year tutorials

The results presented in this section are total quantities of the different tutor questions used in T112 and T114.

Table 4.15 Tutor questions in T 112 and T114

Tutorial	Closed display	Closed referential	Open referential	Total
T112	25(45.5%)	6(10.9%)	24(43.6%)	55
T114	5(18.5%)	3(11.1%)	19(70.4%)	27

The figures presented in this table show that in T112, Tutor A asked more closed display questions than Tutor E, who used far more open referential questions. Both tutors had fewer closed referential questions than the other questions. In some instances, the tutors combined these questions in their discourse to form links between student turns (as illustrated in § 4.4.1.3 below). In terms of student output, these questions produced the discourse acts presented in Table 4.16 below.

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Table 4.16 Student discourse acts in T 112 and T114

Tutorial	CI	C	E	I	RI	A	Total
T112	1(1.9%)	3(5.8%)	1(1.9%)	31(53.6%)	14(26.9%)	2(3.8%)	52
T114	1 (2.2%)	4(8.7%)	0(0%)	36 (78.3%)	5(10.9%)	0(0%)	46

Students in both tutorials produced very similar totals of discourse acts. However, although the statistical result (Chi-square=7.44(df=5); p=0.1899) indicates no significant difference between the two groups, if one focuses just on the two most frequent acts (reply-informs and informs) the considerably higher percentages of reply-informs in T112 appears to link with the tutor's use of substantially more closed display questions. Similarly, the higher percentage of open referential questions in T114 suggests a link with these students' much higher number of informs. Thus the overall quantitative analyses of the tutor elicits and the students' responses in these two tutorials provide a strong general indication of a connection between tutor discourse behaviour and student participation. Given that informs are high-initiative acts and reply-informs are low-initiative acts, the quantitative analyses also show clearly that tutor behaviour plays a very important role in influencing levels of student initiative.

In the next section, a more qualitative discussion of the tutor discourse behaviour is aimed at complementing the quantitative analyses and their findings by looking at some of the typical interactions between the tutors and the students in the two tutorials.

4.4.1.2 Discussion

In T112 the relatively high number of students' reply-informs is not surprising because the number of closed display questions the tutor used was also high, as already indicated. The responses to these questions tended to be shorter in

terms of student discourse acts and syntactically less complex because there was often only a single correct response, known to and expected by the questioner, as illustrated below:

Excerpt 9-T114

[Sequence][9]Tutor:	E-> Are there things in the play that make Lakunle half African,
	half European? **(Closed referential)/**
	Is he a real European?**(Closed display)/**
	I mean would you say this culture is right for him
	in everything?**(Closed display)**
[Sequence][10]Lucky:	RI-> I-> I think Lakunle is not a real European./ He is not a complete I-> European/ because he doesn't fulfill this culture.

Open referential questions, on the other hand, are expected to generate student answers that are 'somehow qualitatively better than answers to closed display questions' (Dalton-Puffer 2007:96) and indeed evidence of this is seen in [36] below:

Excerpt 10-T112

[Sequence][35]Tutor:	E So, what do we say? **(Open referential)/**
	E-> What is the development of this feeling
	in the last 8 lines of the poem, from line 26/27, ' facially
	unburned, but madam you should rather see for yourself'?/
	(Open referential)
	E-> Why does he give this description?(**Open referential)/**
	E-> What does it tell us about the caller and also about the
	attitude of the landlady?**(Open referential)**

```
                                    I->
[Sequence][36]Dorothy:        I think by then Africans or Black people did not mix

                              with the Whites or other residents./

                                    I->                   I->
                              By saying this,/ the caller is trying to convince the

                              madam to think that he is light complexioned, /
                               I->                                            I->
                              because //if you are light in complexion// they can accept

                               you.
```

In Dorothy's response, there are many more discourse acts than in her previous response in Excerpt 6-T112, turn [27] to the closed display question. The response to turn [36] has a double subordinate, i.e. *because* and an *if-clause,* which show that responding to open referential questions tends to increase the length and complexity of student turns.

However, this is not always the case, as in Excerpt 11-T112 turns [11], [13], [15], and [17].

Excerpt 11 -T112

```
                                       E->
[Sequence][7]Tutor:           What are the techniques that the poet uses to achieve dramatic

                              effect in this poem?(Open referential)
                                    RI->
[Self-selection][8]Baboloki:  I think the writer uses punctuation to pay attention to details.
                                    E->
[Sequence][9]Tutor:           Can you say that again?(Closed display)
                                    I->
[Sequence][10]Baboloki:       I think the poet uses punctuation in various places to help us pay

                              attention to details.
                                    E->
[Sequence][11]Tutor:          What else?(Open referential)?

                                    RI->
[Sequence][12]Baboloki:       The use of sentences.
                              A->              E->
[Sequence][13]Tutor:          Right,/ such as what? (Open referential)
                                    I->
[Sequence][14]Baboloki:       The ringing of the telephone, the crushing sound of…
                                    E->
[Sequence][15]Tutor:          What about the other details?(Open referential)/
```

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	E->
	Can you give an example of a metaphor?(**Closed display**)
	RI->
[Self-selection][16]Dorothy:	Like playing rail.
	E->
[Sequence][17]Tutor:	Is that a metaphor?(**Closed display)/**
	E->
	[…] What else? (**Open referential**)
	RI->
[Sequence][18]Didimas:	The images.
	E->
[Sequence][19]Tutor:	Such as?(**Open referential)**
	RI->
[Sequence][20]Didimas:	Lipstick quoted, long road…

These open referential questions appear in a context where the tutor is trying to elicit a fairly precise information, but there is still a degree of openness in the way responses can be provided. Although there is an element of having to display knowledge, the questions cannot be categorised as closed display questions because there is this open-endedness and the tutor does not have an exact answer in mind each time she asks those questions. These examples highlight again the point made in this study that it is not easy, as some researchers imply to distinguish closed display from open referential questions.

In T114, the tutor used many more open referential questions as opposed to closed display questions. In this tutorial, the students were discussing a play and the open referential questions, as illustrated in Excerpt 12-T114 below, enabled them to produce elaborate discourses compared to the response generated by the closed referential questions in turn [7] below:

Excerpt 12-T114

	E->
[Sequence][5]Tutor:	[…] What do you think is the writer's main aim in creating that
	character, Lakunle? (**Open referential**)
	I-> I->
[Sequence][6]Benny:	I think the writer is unfair to Lakunle/ because he is the sole
	person in this whole village who seems to be favouring the

```
                                              I->              I->
                        European values./ No one is supporting him./ He is against
                                                           I->
                        Sidi, Sadiku and Baroka/ and most of the villagers are against
                                              I->
                        his views./ So, I think the writer is very unfair to Lakunle./ He
                                                           I->
                        seems like an idiot among these people.


                                              E->
[Sequence][7]Tutor:     Do you people agree? (Closed referential)
                                              E->
                        Is that the main aim? (Closed referential)
                                              I->
[Self-selection][8]Paulina:  I think another aim is that the writer wants to show us how
                                                           I->
                        important our culture is/ and that we must respect our culture

                        than European culture.
                                              E->
[Sequence][9]Tutor:     Are these things in the play that make Lakunle half African,

                        half European? (Closed referential)
                                              E->
                        Is he a real European?(Closed referential)
                                              E->
                        I mean would you say this culture is right for him

                        in everything?(Closed referential)
```

Benny's response to the tutor's open referential question in turn [6] is quite elaborate compared to Paulina's response to the closed referential questions in [7]. In this excerpt, the closed referential questions functioned as follow-up questions to the open referential question asked in [5] and that is why the student introduced her response with *I think another aim...* These follow-up questions provided feedback, as in [7] and [9], and also linked the turns to produce elaborate student discourse.

In both tutorials, the responses to the open referential questions generated elaborate discourse with many more informs than closed display questions, which produced many reply-informs. These elaborate responses to the open referential questions confirm research findings that have consistently shown that the use of these questions contribute considerably to students' effective

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participation in interactions (Brock 1986; Cullen 1998, Tichapondwa 2008). There were very few closed display questions which occurred without other questions and these produced very short responses, as in classroom discourse literature (Hung 2004; Maley 2009; Sinclair and Coulthard 1975; Suter 2001, Tichapondwa 2008), but in tutor turns where they occurred in conjunction with other questions, they functioned as follow-up questions and thus formed links between the student turns to continue the interactions until the tutorial questions were adequately discussed before moving on to new ones. This clearly indicates that closed display questions were not used in the same way as in classroom discourse, that is, simply to elicit display of a knowledge item (Dalton-Puffer 2007:95). Instead, the tutor's intention was mainly to encourage student participation through the discussion of academic content. In that way, the closed display questions, especially those that occurred with the other questions, contributed to sustaining the interaction and making it possible for the other students in the tutorial group to also take part in the discussions.

4.4.1.3 Conclusion

In T112 and T114, the tutor elicits influenced the students participation effectiveness differently. In T112, Tutor A asked more closed display questions in relation to open referential questions, while in T114, Tutor E used many more open referential questions and fewer closed display questions. The closed display questions used by Tutor A produced very short responses that were syntactically less complex, as illustrated in Excerpt 6 turns [27] because they required factual information. The use of open referential questions by Tutor E, on the other hand, generated elaborate student output with syntactically more complex sentences, as shown in Excerpt 12 [6], where the conjunction *because* signalling a subordinate clause was used by the student. Students' responses to open referential questions tended to be more than twice as long and more syntactically complex as the responses to closed display questions, thus confirming Van Dijk's (1977a in Brock 1986:50) comment that

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referential questions may require that a student provide,

in addition to information not already possessed by the teacher,

the connections between the propositions expressing

that information, connections which are necessary to form

linearly coherent sequences. These connections are typically

expressed by natural connectives such as *and, because, yet,*

so, etc*.*

The tutor elicits in the two tutorials contributed to participation effectiveness by generating many more high-initiative acts in T114, e.g. informs, on the one hand, and low-initiative discourse acts in T112, e.g. reply-informs, on the other hand. The overall quantitative analyses of the tutor elicits and the students responses in T112 and T114 provide a strong general indication of a connection between tutor discourse behaviour and student participation.

4.4.2 Quantitative analysis of third-year tutorials

In the present section, a quantitative analysis of the third-year tutorials is presented, followed by the discussion which links the quantitative analysis with the qualitative interpretation. The figures presented in Table 4.17 are the total quantities of Tutor A's and Tutor E's different questions, as used in T311 and T301.

Table 4.17 Tutor questions in T301 and T 311

Tutorial	Closed display	Closed referential	Open referential	Total
T301	1 (12.5%)	3 (37.5%)	4(50.0%)	8
T311	9(34.6%)	6 (23.1%)	11(42.3%)	26

In T311 Tutor A asked three times more questions than Tutor E. In T311, Tutor A had a higher percentage for open referential questions and the closed display

questions, while Tutor E had a substantially higher percentage for open referential questions and fewer closed display questions than Tutor A. These overall findings on tutor questions help to explain patterns in the students' discourse acts, as reflected in the table below:

Table 4.18 Student discourse acts in T301 and T311

Tutorial	Counter-informs	Comments	Elicits	Informs	Reply-informs	Acknowledges	Total
T301	6(6%)	5(5%)	4(4%)	79(79%)	2(2%)	4(4%)	100
T311	2(1.19%)	3(1.8%)	3(1.8%)	148(88.1%)	8(4.8%)	4(2.4%)	168

By far the most frequent act in both tutorials is informs and this appears to link with the Tutors' frequent use of open referential questions. Tutor A's use of more closed display questions can be linked to the higher percentage of reply-informs in her tutorial. The numbers however very small in both cases and in general the tutor elicits influenced the students' discourse performance positively, as indicated by the much higher percentages for the high-initiative acts in both tutorials.

Some comparisons on the quantitative findings for the selected first-year and third-year tutorials are appropriate here. Tutor A's use of more closed display questions in T112 than in T311 and this largely explains the many more student reply-informs than any other discourse acts. Similarly, the frequent use of open referential questions in her third-year tutorial produced a high number of student informs. Tutor E, on the other hand, had very high percentages of open referential questions in both T114 and T301 and these can be associated with the very high numbers of student informs in both tutorials, while the fewer closed display questions generated fewer reply-informs. The quantitative analyses of the tutor elicits in these tutorials shows that Tutor A varied her approach in her first-year and third-year tutorials more than Tutor E.

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4.4.2.1 Discussion

The total number of open referential questions in T301 was high compared to the closed referential and the closed display questions. The students' discourse act performance in the excerpt below illustrates how this can be linked to the tutors' use of the open referential question in turn [23]:

Excerpt 13-T301

```
                              A->           I->
[Sequence][23] Tutor:       OK!/ It also highlights selfishness./

                             Anybody to add to that? (Open referential)

                            What about Abigail?(Open referential)
                                        I->
[Self-selection][24]Tebogo:    Actually, she was in love with Proctor./
                                     CI->                    I->
[Self-selection] [25]Mark:    I do not think they were in love. /It was adultery.
                                C->                  C->
[Self-selection]  [26]Tony:    It was lust./ The fact is that they had an affair./
                                    A->
[Self-selection] [27]Tebogo:   They had an affair./


                                 CI->
[Self-selection] [28]Mark:    But there is nowhere… where it is written./
                              A->          C->                    I->
[Self-selection][29]Tutor:    Yeah./ It is not necessarily an affair./ They were just flirting./
                                   CI->
[Self-selection] [30]Tony:    But we both know that Elizabeth suspected  that/ Abigail and
                                    I->                       I->
                            Proctor had an affair./And indeed that affair did exist.


                                 I->
[Self-selection][31]Mark:     Well, as we are pointing out in the text,

                             it was mentioned./
                                            C->                 I->
[Sequence][32] Tony:          That is why that thing is adultery,/ having an affair

                             with a married man./
                                   CI->
[Sequence][33]Mark:          But nowhere is it mentioned that it goes on and it

                             stops./
```

In this excerpt, Tutor E's open referential questions generated an interaction in which different discourse acts were used by the students in their outputs and

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encouraged a participation pattern that resembled conversation-like interaction, where speakers compete for the speech floor through self-selections and sequences. In the excerpt there is more exchange of student views triggered by the tutor's elicits in turn [23] and their output consists of only high-initiative acts, which is a further indication of the link between open referential questions and high-initiative acts observed in T112 and T114 earlier.

Unlike in T114, where closed display questions were used as follow-up questions to continue the tutorial discussion, in T301, Tutor E provided feedback through different discourse acts, as in turn [29] above to encourage the students to challenge each other's views, which is a positive feature as it is likely to enhance their understanding of the content being discussed.

He also provided feedback through acknowledges, as in Excerpt 14-T301, turns [11], [13] and [15] below:

Excerpt 14-T301

```
                                        A->
        [Sequence][11]Tutor:           Alright!
                                            I->
        [Sequence][[12] Mark:           Which is contradictory of the people who
                                                            I->
                                         grew up within the democratic state…/they grew up./
                                        A->
        [Sequence][13] Tutor:           Sure.
                                                    I->
         [Sequence][14]Mark:            They grew up with these values reinforced within
                                                    I->
                                         them./  And it means even the examples from their own

                                        elders were such that they were reinforced within a
                                                            I->
                                        bureaucratic , puritanical way of life./ Now contradictions
                                                            I->
                                        give us something else. /It brings us back to individuals,
                                                    I->
                                        not the whole community.

                                         A->
        [Sequence][15]Tutor:            Okay!
```


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I->   I->
[Sequence][16]Mark: In that as this dishonesty is taking place/ even when
                                                          I->
                           the preacher sees by his own eyes that deed,/ he tries
                                          I->
                           to conceal it /by not wanting the matter being heard
                                          I->
                           by the community,/ which does not make him an honest

                           person.

This tutor feedback generated Mark's sequence of turns, in [12], [14] and [16]. As with the open referential questions in [23] which generated students' output with high-initiative acts, tutor feedback through acknowledges also produced student output with high-initiative acts and also enabled Mark to take a significantly greater number of speaking turns than the other students in his tutorial group.

Tutor E's discourse behaviour in this tutorial is different from how he conducted T114, where closed display questions and closed referential questions were used as follow-up questions and this led to an interaction pattern that was more tutor controlled through questions than in T301, where he used more acknowledges, as here, to sustain the interaction.

In T311, Tutor A used more open referential questions than closed display questions and closed referential questions. The open referential questions generated extended student discourse, as in Excerpt 13-T311, turns [31] and [32] below:

Excerpt 15-T311

[Sequence][30]Tutor: Anything that you want to say again about imitation?

                            (Open referential)

                            What about second language acquisition?/ **(Open referential)**

                            How would we transfer that idea of imitation into the second

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language classroom?(**Open referential)**

I->
[Sequence][31]Mmathabo: The teacher would just say...like you said in class,

we are using things that are around us ,i.e.
I->
the chalkboard./ She would actually say, 'what is this
I->
Class?'/ Because he told us before that is a chalkboard,
I->   I->
we'd actually have to say it's a chalkboard./ We didn't

know it is a chalkboard./
I->
 So we are imitating what she said./
E->   I->
 Isn't it imitation?/ I think it falls under imitation./
I->
[Self-selection][32]Nono: I would say imitation plays a much bigger role

in second language acquisition than in first
I->
 language acquisition/ because// then when

you were learning your first language//

we'd assume that you'd already been exposed
I->
to your first language./ Now what you want to

do is to learn to use the second language a
I->
bit/. You… you now have experience in as far as
I->
language is concerned./ Now you'd want to imitate the
I->
second language teacher /so as to… to learn
I->
the language you know,/ but not as much as in the
I->   I->
first language/ because in the first language/ you were
I->
still not sure about language./ The child would be
I->
ready to absorb anything you know in the…/whereas
I->
in the second language you'd want to know/
I->
if this is a chalkboard./ Then that is what
I->
 you are going to call it,/ because /then when you

are learning your second language// assuming that
I->
you'd be learning it from school,// you'd be grown

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up and you'd know… you'd be able to differentiate

                                     I->
between things now./ If they call this a chalkboard,/
                I->   I->
you are going to call it a chalkboard./ Now you are

going to… you are going to try to make less mistakes.

Asking open referential questions resulted in student-student interaction and it also increased the length of student turns, as exemplified in [31] and [32] above. As the tutorial questions were based on the Psycholinguistics module in this particular tutorial, the students tended to provide a lot of information from their background knowledge of the subject matter as well as their own experiences as second language speakers of English. This shows that the tutor elicits provided an opportunity for the students to participate actively in tutorials so as to expand their understanding of their subject areas and improve their spoken discourse and this relates directly to the concerns of my study.

Tutor A used open referential questions together with closed display questions in this tutorial and this type of questioning resulted in different student outputs, as in [39] and [40] below. In turn [39], for instance, the response is directly to the closed display question and that is why it is a reply-inform, while in [40] the response is to the open referential question and that is why it is longer with many high-initiative acts.

Excerpt 16-T311

                                     E->
[Sequence][38] Tutor: But what does that mean?/(**Open referential**)/
                                     E->
                             Does it mean that only a child is creative in his

                             first language?(**Closed display**)/
                                        E->
                             Then when it comes to his second language that creativity

                             goes away?(**Closed display**)/
                                    E->
                              Is that what you mean?/**(Closed display)**

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```
                                     RI->
[Sequence][39] Mmathabo:      Actually no.
                                     CI->
[Self-selection][40] Nono:    Yes, we do not have much freedom in as far as
                                              I->
                              creating language./ And you know experimenting
                                                        I->
                              with a lot of words goes/ because in a formal

                              setting, remember in a classroom we are taught that

                              this is it and that is how it should be,/
                                                   I->
                              whereas in our first language,//Setswana,
                                                I->
                              for instance, //we'd have sounds to absorb/and a lot
                                    I->              I->
                              to experiment /and play around with.
```

The tutor questions in this tutorial generated a pattern of interaction that is similar as the one illustrated in T112 because after each student turn, Tutor A asked follow-up questions to involve the other students and take the discussion further. In T311, on the other hand, the tutor elicits, as seen in Excerpt 16 above, generated a student-student participation pattern partly because the discussion questions related to the students' own experiences as second language learners. Thus, their responses to open referential questions generated very elaborate student discourses.

4.4.2.2 Conclusion

The Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis involved relatively more qualitative discussion because, as indicated earlier, it did not have variables, such as the students' year of study or gender, which could relatively easily be tested statistically.

The analysis of this hypothesis revealed that tutors used mostly closed display questions and open referential questions. The closed referential questions in most tutor turns occurred with either closed display questions or open referential question as follow-up questions. In T112, there were more closed display than

open referential questions, but in T114, the opposite was the case. In both tutorials, the closed display questions generated reply-informs, which are low-initiative acts. However, these reply-informs did not stifle student initiative, as observed by Tichapondwa (2008) for example, because they either formed links between turns or functioned as follow-up questions. The open referential questions, on the other hand, produced informs, which are high-initiative acts. Thus the analysis of these tutorials suggested a link between closed display questions and low-initiative acts, on the one hand, and open referential questions with high-initiative acts, on the other.

In T301 the same tutor used fewer open referential questions than in T114, but the interaction pattern that emerged resembled genuine communication with students competing for the speech floor. Unlike in T114, Tutor E in T301, gave feedback through acknowledges and other discourse acts and these formed links between student turns and clearly encouraged the participation of students. In T311, Tutor A used more open referential questions than closed display questions and the former led to extended student responses, with many more high-initiative discourse acts. Unlike in classroom discourse, where researchers found that teachers asked more closed display questions than open referential questions (Hung 2004; Maley 2009, Suter 2001), in the four tutorials, the tutors asked many more open referential questions than closed display questions and these open referential questions produced elaborate student discourse and encouraged student participation. Research has also shown that such interaction in tertiary level tutorials does indeed promote participation and might even improve students' language development, more specifically in cases where the students' primary language is not the medium of instruction (Cohen 1994; Davidowitz & Rollnick 2005, Webb 1983), as is the case in the present study.

The difference in tutor discourse behaviour between Tutor A and Tutor E was observed in their third-year tutorials. Tutor E allowed his third-year students to interact freely through acknowledges. This enabled them to produce long

contributions, to challenge each other's point of view and to end up with a lively tutorial, where everyone participated and used more high-initiative acts than his first-year students. Tutor A, on the other hand, used more questions to involve the students in the interaction. The way Tutor A and E conducted their third-year tutorials, confirms the comment made by Lecturer 4 in response to one of the interview questions which asked what general behaviour was expected from tutors in the tutorials:

> We should limit our contribution. We should not contribute
> more than they do. We should ask them questions in such
> a way that they respond to the group so that they can
> interact among themselves rather than with us the facilitators.
> (English Department Lecturer 4)

With respect to the amount of discourse acts, third-year students in both third-year tutorials used more discourse acts than the first-years and this was a further confirmation that third-years participated more effectively than first-years. This result is also in line with the observation also made by Lecturer 4 that third-years seemed more confident than first-years in the tutorial discussions.

It can therefore be concluded that through the different types of tutor questions students were able to participate in the tutorial discussions, to link their contributions through follow-up questions asked by the tutors and so presumably to enhance the students' understanding of their subject; thus supporting the Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis which predicted a relationship between tutor discourse behaviour and student participation effectiveness in tutorials. The quantitative analyses of the first-year and third-year students' participation revealed that in tutorials open referential questions generated elaborate discourse with many informs, which implies that that these questions produced high-initiative acts, while the closed display questions produced short responses, namely reply-informs, which indicated low-initiative acts. When the closed display

questions occurred with closed referential questions and open referential questions, they functioned as follow-up questions which formed links between student turns. Some open referential questions required students to display knowledge, which implies that the distinction between closed display questions and open referential questions proposed by classroom researchers (Hung 2004; Maley 2009, Suter 2001) may be problematic in cases where open referential questions   require students to display knowledge rather than interpret and evaluate issues.

The question that arises is how similar is the tutor discourse behaviour of Tutor A and Tutor E to Tutor C, Tutor D and Tutor F? Tutor C, Tutor D and Tutor F used mostly closed referential questions and open referential questions. The former type was used as follow-up questions in similar ways as used in Tutor A and E's tutorials. The open referential and closed referential questions used by Tutor C produced short responses, as shown in Excerpt 16 T-105

Excerpt 16-T105

	E->
[Self-selection][1]Tutor:	Now what are your experiences in South Africa?
	(**Open referential)/**
	E->
	Do you find that you have a problem in understanding
	South African English?(**Closed referential question**).
	I->
[Self-selection][2]Amanda:	South African English is just the same as the English we speak
	in Botswana.
	I-> I->
[Self-selection][3]Duncan:	It's just the same/ because each and every word they use is also
	what we use at home.
	E->
[Self-selection][4]Tutor:	What about pronunciation?**(Open referential)**/
	I-> E->
	Dr. Whiteman is a Canadian./So did You have a problem
	understanding him?(**Closed referential)**

		RI-> I->
[Self-selection][5]Amanda:		Yes/ because// if you sit at the back //you wouldn't hear him.

[Sequence][6]Tutor: What is the problem? (**Open referential**)? Does he talk fast?
                                                                 (**Closed referential**)
                                RI->   I->

[Self-selection][7]Duncan: He is fast./ Even that is a problem to us.

Tutor C's open referential questions in turn [1], [4] and [6] appear in a context where the tutor is trying to elicit a fairly precise information, but there is still a degree of openness in the way the responses can be provided. However, the students' responses are short partly because the open referential questions were paired with closed referential questions and also because the tutor used a three-part interaction cycle (i.e. tutor elicit-student response-tutor elicit). Tutor D also combined closed referential and open referential questions in his third-year tutorials. Contrary to Tutor C, Tutor D's closed referential questions and open referential questions sometimes produced elaborate discourse with high-initiative acts, as shown in the Excerpt 17 T-310

Excerpt 17-T310

                                        I->
[Self-selection][1]Tutor: Let's start with that stereotype, the experiences of women./
                                        E->
                  Should they keep quiet about their experiences?(**Closed referential**)/
                                        E->
                  or should they gloss them over**?(Closed referential**)/
                                        E->
                  Is it right to speak?/(**Closed referential**).
                                        I->
[Self-selection][2]Solly: I don't think women should n't talk about these things,/ but the
                                        E->
                  thing is within which framework do they define things?/ I mean
                  I->   E->
                  their arguments./ Are we going to take the new liberal type of

                  dominant, culture imposed definitions of how the battles about
                                        E->
                  gender should be fought?/Are we going to define it according to the

                  African terms?

                              E->
[Sequence][3] Tutor: What will be the African terms?(**Open referential**)
                                I->   C->
[Sequence][4] Solly: I am not particularly clear about that one, /but what I am clear about is

that you know some of … and the way the battles are being directed./
                    I->   I->
Basically, the concept of very rigid White women,/ who have little

understanding of family relations amongst African communities/ and
                                                 I->
they should n't be defined in those kinds of struggle for our women./
                              I->
our women should define those according to the African terms.

Similarly to the two tutors who were the main focus of this section, then, the other three tutors also used all three types of questions quite effectively to encourage student participation in their tutorials.

4.5 Cohesion analysis

This is an additional part of the discussion which explores a possible link between specified cohesion features of students' spoken discourse and students' participation effectiveness.

Conjunctive cohesion analysis was undertaken as a limited-scale subsidiary study to investigate whether certain types of conjunctive cohesion correlated with participation effectiveness in spoken discourse.   As explained earlier, the rationale for analysing students' turns to explore the density of discontinuatives as an aspect of quantity and quality of participation derives from Hubbard (1989:257), where it was found that discontinuatives made for more coherent student academic writing and in Ramasawmy (2004:72), where in high-rated coherent student narrative texts there was an abundant use of causative conjunctives and in high-rated expository compositions more discontinuatives were found. In the present study, however, I examine these aspects in spoken discourse to establish whether they would be indicators of quality, as in coherent academic writing.

Before this conjunctive cohesion analysis was undertaken, all 16 tutorial groups' participation effectiveness, namely the total number of discourse acts and turns

and the degree of initiative at discourse act and turn-taking level, was considered to distinguish the more effective groups from the less effective ones. The clearly more effective third-year and first-year groups were T301, T311, T 112 and T117 and the clearly less effective third-year and first-year groups were T305, T306, T105 and T111. Tables 4.19 and 4.20 below present the discourse acts and turns in the more effective third-year and first-year tutorial groups and in the less effective groups respectively.

Table 4.19 : More effective third-year and first-year groups

Tutorial	Turns	Acts	CI	C	E	I	RI	A
301	37	100	6	5	4	79	2	4
311	37	168	2	3	3	148	8	4
112	28	52	1	3	1	31	14	2
117	54	124	2	1	0	113	0	8
Total	**156**	**444**	**11**	**12**	**8**	**371**	**24**	**18**

Table 4.20 : Less effective third-year and first-year groups

Tutorial	Turns	Acts	CI	C	E	I	RI	A
305	11	42	0	0	0	42	0	0
306	3	15	0	1	4	10	0	0
105	10	22	0	0	0	17	3	2
111	15	44	0	1	0	37	6	0
Total	**39**	**123**	**0**	**2**	**4**	**106**	**9**	**2**

The students in the more effective groups had higher numbers for discourse acts and turns and also used more high-initiative discourse acts relative to the less effective group. After identifying the four more effective and four less effective groups in the first-year and third-year tutorials, the total number of discontinuatives and causatives presented in Table 4.21 were then divided by the total number of discourse acts in the more effective and less effective groups to provide the density of conjunctives per 100 discourse acts (bracketed figures in Table 4.21).

Table 4.21: Conjunctive cohesion in more and less effective tutorials

Total acts	Discontinuatives		Causatives		
More effective groups.	**Concession-Contraexpectation e.g. *Although***	**Contrast e.g. *But***	**Condition-Consequence e.g. *If***	**Reason-Result e.g. *because, so that, in order that***	**Total**
T112(=52) T117(=124)	0 0	2 3	1 2	5 6	8 11
T301(100) T311(168)	0 2	11 8	1 7	6 15	18 32
Total=444	**2 (0.5)**	**24 (5.4)**	**11(2.5)**	**32 (7.2)**	**69 (15.5)**
Less effective groups					
T105(=22) T111(=44)	0 2	0 0	0 0	3 3	3 5
T305(=42) T306(=15)	0 0	1 2	5 0	4 0	10 2
Total=123	**2 (1.6)**	**3 (2.4)**	**5 (4.1)**	**10 (8.1)**	**20 (16.2)**

The frequencies of those acts containing the selected cohesion features in each of the groups relative to the number of acts that did not contain such features were compared statistically using Chi-square. The test revealed that none of the four cohesion features occurred with a significantly higher density per 100 words in the more effective than in the less effective group. This result therefore suggests that there is no relationship between participation effectiveness in tutorials and high density of these specific types of conjunctives in the discourse of participants. Although this is somewhat surprising in the light of the written discourse findings discussed in Chapter 2, it is clear enough in Table 4.21 that

the density differences between the two groups are small. It should be born in mind, however, that the data on which this analysis was based was limited.

In terms of frequencies rather than densities, the more effective group revealed much higher use of the cohesion features, but this was of course largely because they participated more, generating many more acts overall. Without detracting from the importance of the statistical finding, however, brief consideration will now be given to certain relationships between high frequencies of cohesion features and the nature of the tutorials in which they occur.

In T301, as indicated earlier, the students were discussing Literature questions based on *The Crucible,* the prescribed text for the Literature module. The questions required the students to defend their point of view on what they thought were the expected Christian principles. As they contrasted the behaviour of the characters in the drama and also supported their arguments, they used a lot of discontinuatives signalling a Contrast relationship. They also used causatives, signalling a Reason-Result relationship, which tends to be common in argumentation. Kim (2004:161) also observed that his students in academic interaction commonly used discontinuatives that signalled a Contrast relationship and causatives that signalled a Reason-Result relationship. These conjunctives occurred as students were responding to open referential questions (§ 2.4 and § 4.4), which provided ample opportunities for producing extended output important in enhancing communicative competence in the second language (Swain 1985, 1997; Shehadeh 2000 , Izumi 2002).

In T311, the other more effective third-year tutorial group, the discussion was on the effects of age on language acquisition and the importance of input and output in second language acquisition. It is therefore not surprising that these students used more causatives that signalled Condition-Consequence and Reason-Result relationships than in T301. The causatives occurred as students were expressing their opinions about what would happen if children did not have exposure to input and of the importance of age in language acquisition.

Despite the sort of relationship just discussed and the higher frequencies (as opposed to densities) of discontinuative and causative conjunctives in the more effective groups, the findings of this exploratory study do not provide support for the idea that these features could well be indicators of quality not only in student academic writing, but also in students' spoken discourse in academic settings such as tutorials. This study does, however, indicate that the use of discontinuatives and causatives is to an extent dependent on the nature of the tutorial task, and this could be an avenue for further exploration.

4.6 Chapter review

The primary focus of the chapter was to present findings arising from investigating the four hypotheses derived from the descriptive aims of this study. The central construct reflected in these hypotheses, 'participation effectiveness' was operationalised in terms of the total number of discourse acts and turns produced by students as well as the quality of the acts and turns in terms of the degree of initiative used by the students.

With respect to hypothesis 1, The Year of Study hypothesis, which explored the differences in participation between first and third-year students, third-year students used more discourse acts and more high-initiative acts than first-years. The Year of Study hypothesis was therefore supported in terms of discourse acts and discourse act initiative. Although third-year students had fewer turns than the first-years, their mean length of discourse act per turn was higher and they showed initiative through self-selections and allocations, thus supporting the Year of Study hypothesis in three of the four features of participation effectiveness.

Regarding the Student Gender hypothesis, the females used more discourse acts than the males, but the average number of acts per individual student

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indicated only a slight difference between the two groups. The Student Gender hypothesis at discourse act level was therefore supported if the disparity in the number of males and females was not taken into account, but was not supported if the disparity was considered. In terms of discourse act initiative, the Student Gender hypothesis was supported, with the males using relatively high-initiative acts than the females, but in turn participation and turn taking initiative, the females performed better than the males. Thus, in terms of discourse act, turn participation and turn taking initiative not only was the Student Gender hypothesis not supported, but its opposite was supported.

In so far as the first part of Hypothesis 3, (i.e. effects of tutor gender on students' participation irrespective of gender) is concerned, there was no difference in discourse act participation between the students and the tutors in the male-led and female-led tutorials. Statistical tests on the relative proportions of high-initiative acts to low-initiative acts, on turn participation and turn-taking initiative in both types of tutorials also showed no significant difference between the two groups. The overall result therefore suggests that male as opposed to female tutors had no effect on students' initiative and so this part of the Tutor Gender hypothesis is not supported. With respect to the second part of H_3, (i.e. effects of tutor gender on students of different genders), statistical testing indicated a very significant difference between the male and female students' discourse act participation in the male-led and female-led tutorials. The Tutor Gender hypothesis was therefore supported in terms of this feature. This hypothesis was also supported with respect to discourse act initiative in the male-led tutorials, but in the female-led tutorials, no significant difference was found between the males and females, even though the females used a much higher percentage of reply-informs than the males. The Tutor Gender hypothesis therefore was not supported with respect to discourse act initiative in the female-led tutorials. In terms of turn participation, the test indicated a very significant difference between the male and female students. In the male-led tutorials, the male students performed better than the females and in the female-led tutorials, the females

performed better than the males, thus confirming that the students participated more effectively when they were of the same gender as the tutors. In turn taking initiative, however, no difference was found between the males and females in both types of tutorials and so in this respect the Tutor Gender hypothesis was therefore not supported.

Finally, the Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis (H_4) predicted a relationship between tutor discourse behaviour and student participation effectiveness in tutorials. This hypothesis was explored both quantitatively and qualitatively to establish how tutor discourse behaviour through their elicits would influence student behaviour in the tutorials. The features analysed were mainly closed display questions, closed referential questions and open referential questions. These questions formed the core of the tutor discourse behaviour because through them tutors encouraged student participation.

The quantitative analysis of the first-year and third-year tutorials indicated that Tutor A and Tutor E asked more open referential questions than closed display questions and closed referential questions. The open referential questions produced elaborate student output with many more discourse acts, while the closed display questions generated limited responses in the form of reply-informs. The closed display questions in the tutorials were used differently and to better effect compared to how they are reported as normally being used in the ESL literature (e.g. Suter 2001) because they functioned as follow-up questions that provided links between student turns.

Although Tutor E in T301 used fewer questions than in T114, the interaction pattern that emerged in his third-year tutorial more closely aligned with free spontaneous communication, with students competing for the speech floor. He also used acknowledges to give feedback and to form links between student turns in this tutorial. Tutor A, on the other hand, used more open referential questions in her third-year tutorial than closed display questions and the former

type produced extended student responses with more high-initiative discourse acts, while the latter type produced reply-informs, i.e. low-initiative discourse acts. In all four tutorials, the use of open referential questions usually produced high-initiative acts, while closed display questions tended to generate low-initiative acts. Interestingly, however, in combination closed display questions and closed referential questions often led to elaborate discourse and so this kind of tutor discourse behaviour also appears to be an important factor in promoting students' participation effectiveness.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to briefly review the study as a whole, to consider the contribution it makes at theoretical-methodological, descriptive and applicational levels and then having identified some of its limitations, to propose topics for further research.

5.1 Synoptic review

It was established in Chapter 1 that the present study, as an investigation of patterns of interaction in university tutorials, employs a discourse analytical framework to describe such patterns, but also does so from a typically applied linguistic perspective in that it seeks also to address the issue of quality in this type of academic discourse, attempting to explicate in a relatively objective way our perceptions of what constitutes more effective and less effective participation in university tutorials (here in a second language contexts).

Given that a central aim of the study was to put forward a framework that could be used to analyse and measure interaction in tutorials, it was first necessary to understand how the term 'interaction' has been used in second language research. Thus the first part of Chapter 2 started by pointing up the significance of interaction in second language acquisition processes by focusing on the Interaction Hypothesis (Long 1980), which posited that negotiating meaning through interaction modification results in comprehensible input. Attention was also drawn to the importance of the Output Hypothesis (Swain 1985), which postulated that production makes a learner move from the 'semantic processing'

that predominates in comprehension to the more 'syntactic processing that is necessary for second language development' (Izumi 2003:168). Reviewing studies on interaction and output in this chapter revealed that through involvement in activities that required learners to use the second language for genuine communication purposes, they improved the quality of their participation and their language development, they became aware of the linguistic gaps in their knowledge and gained in-depth knowledge in their subject content.

The focus then moved to different frameworks that were developed to analyse classroom discourse and interaction in small group discussions. It was established that the works of Crombie (1985a), Van Lier (1988), Hubbard (1998) and Tichapondwa (2008) were most relevant to the investigation, which was also undertaken against the background of earlier work by other scholars (e.g. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, Flanders 1970). The latter scholars' contribution to the analysis of classroom discourse provided a foundation that was extended by Hubbard (1998) using Crombie (1985a) as a basis for his framework, which also made use of the functional-unit and the cline of initiative as analytical constructs. The first measure (derived from Lieber 1981) was used to segment speaking turns into relatively clearly defined but rhetorically justifiable discourse units, termed discourse acts, and so to enable one to quantify discourse in terms of numbers of discourse acts. The cline of initiative distinguished between the different types of discourse acts in a more qualitative way. Van Lier's (1988) coding system, on the other hand, was used to quantify students' participation in terms of turn taking and to determine the degree of initiative in their turns.

Relatively little research has been done, particularly recently, on discourse frameworks for making general assessments of the quality of interaction in university tutorials, but important studies reviewed in this chapter include Powell (1974), Webb (1981, 1983) and MacDonald (1991). From these studies, it was observed that an analytical framework should have a manageable number of categories, 'as the larger the number, the more difficult the instrument becomes

to use and the more arbitrary the assignment of talk into the categories' (Webb 1981:65). Other studies that focused on interaction in university tutorials are De Klerk (1994, 1995a and 1995b) and Hunt (1997). They investigated students' interaction patterns in tutorials involving males and females and Black and White students in a South African university. In general, then, this chapter also explored quantitative and qualitative approaches to the analysis of students' participation and interaction.

Chapter 3 focused on the research methodology. The research design applied was described as hypothetico-deductive because of its deductive purpose and also because it was hypothesis driven. It involved an analytic rather than synthetic approach as it measured students' participation in terms of specifics such as discourse acts and turns as well as initiative at discourse act and turn taking levels. The second main section of this chapter focused on the four hypotheses and the central construct, participation effectiveness, which was identified and operationalised. This was followed by the presentation and justification of the analytical framework in terms of which students' participation effectiveness and tutor discourse behaviour were to be analysed. The analytical framework developed involved a combination of a specific set of discourse acts derived from Crombie (1985a) and Hubbard (1998) and turn categories based on Van Lier (1988) and these were explained with examples from the data. This was followed by discussion of procedures, including the important matter of the empirical investigation of the validity of the cline of initiative. The findings of this investigation led to the adoption in the study of a binary distinction between high-initiative and low-initiative discourse acts rather than a cline. The final section of the chapter presented comments on the analytical framework and illustrations of decision procedures taken in applying it.

Chapter 4 presented the findings of the study. Three of the four hypotheses (Year of Study, Student Gender and Tutor Gender) were tested statistically, while the fourth (Tutor Discourse Behaviour) needed to be analysed more particularly

along qualitative lines, although many of the qualitative interpretations were based on quantitative information. The central construct in these hypotheses, participation effectiveness, incorporated the quantity of students' discourse acts and turns and initiative at discourse act and turn taking levels. The findings confirmed the value of underpinning a qualitative perspective with quantitative data and analysis, especially with regard to the fourth hypothesis.

5.2 Contribution of the study

This section discusses the contribution of my study in terms of the theoretical-methodological, descriptive and applicational levels.

5.2.1 Theoretical-methodological level

In this study with its central construct, ' participation effectiveness', I sought to make a contribution to the field of discourse analysis at a theoretical-methodological level by developing an analytical framework based on ideas drawn from Crombie (1985a and 1985b), Hubbard (1998) and Van Lier (1988). This analytical framework combined six discourse acts (§ 3.5.2) and four turn-taking categories that measured students' discourse acts and turn participation and their initiative at discourse act and turn taking levels. Apart from combining the two frameworks, this study also makes a contribution by improving on problematic original definitions of both discourse act and turn categories and turning them into more viable operational definitions, so ensuring that their application in analysis, though not unproblematic, is less of a high-inference procedure than is often the case in discourse and pragmatic studies (§ 3.5.2).

This study also expands Crombie's (1985a) elicit category into three question types, namely closed display questions, closed referential questions and open referential questions in order to explore effects of tutor discourse behaviour on student participation more closely.

An important contribution with regard to the concept of student initiative at discourse act level was the empirical testing of the 'cline of initiative' as originally posited by Hubbard (1998) by eliciting the responses of tutors about the degree of initiative manifested in a sample of students' discourse acts. The results of the test indicated a binary structure rather than a cline, with counter-informs, comments, elicits and informs clustering together as what were subsequently called high-initiative acts, and reply-informs and acknowledges as low-initiative acts.

At turn-taking level, the quality of turns was determined by distinguishing initiative-bearing from non-initiative-bearing turns in similar ways to Van Lier (1988). However, only three initiative-bearing turn categories, namely allocation, self-selection and sequence formed part of the integrated framework in my study because Van Lier's fourth category, topic change, is a relatively fluid concept and so very difficult to define in a sufficiently objective manner(as noted also by for example Kinginger (1994), when applying aspects of Van Lier's (1988) framework to the analysis classroom interaction. Van Lier's (1988) definition of sequence was not very easy to interpret because it did not, amongst other things, spell out for example how many turns can intervene between a speaker's initial turn and his or her next turn in order still to be regarded as a sequence for that speaker. In my study an attempt was made to provide a more precise and workable definition that better reflects the fact that a speaker shows initiative when he or she sustains interaction by following up an initial turn with another after an interlocutor has taken a turn.

In general, the contribution of my study at the theoretical-methodological level therefore, was the provision of an analytical framework that goes some way toward capturing both the quantity and quality of participation in a spoken discourse genre such as university tutorials, using relatively explicitly defined concepts to do so. These two aspects are built into the notion of 'effectiveness' in

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participation, which was operationalised in terms of the amount of participation generated by the students in terms of discourse acts and turns as well as the degree of initiative shown at discourse act and turn-taking levels.

This study also sought in a small-scale supplementary exploration to investigate whether students who participated more effectively made more use of causative and discontinuative conjunctives which have been found to be indicators of quality in the written discourse of student texts (e.g. Hubbard 1989 and Ramasawmy 2004). In terms of the frequencies rather than densities of use, the more effective group of tutorials revealed much higher use of both sets of cohesion features, but this was largely because they participated more in general. Despite the higher frequencies of discontinuatives and causative conjunctives in the more effective groups, their densities of use were not significantly higher than the less effective group, and so the findings, at least of this initial study, do not provide support for the theoretically interesting idea that these features could well be indicators of quality in spoken discourse as well as written discourse in academic settings. However, this study does indicate that the use of discontinuatives and causatives is to an extent dependent on the nature of the tutorial task and this could be an avenue for further exploration.

5.2.2 Descriptive level

In terms of the contribution of a study at a more descriptive level, one is more concerned about the findings as they apply to the particular situation researched, in this case tutorials in the Department of English at a South African university where for effectively all the students English is an additional language. The main features of the findings are presented in Table 5.1 and 5.2 below (when a finding could be tested statistically and was found to be significant (p=.05), very significant (p=.01) or as showing near-significance(p=.10) this is mentioned in the table). Then the findings are considered briefly in relation to other researchers.

Table 5.1 Summary of findings for H_1- H_3

Participation	Initiative
Year of Study Hypothesis (H_1) **Acts:** Third-years produced more discourse acts. **Turns:** Third-years had fewer turns than first-years, but higher mean lengths of turn per student..	**Acts:** Third-years used very significantly more high-initiative discourse acts. **Turns:** Third-years had significantly higher proportions of initiative-bearing turns.
Student Gender Hypothesis (H_2) **Acts:** Female students used more discourse acts but when the means per student were considered the females and the males were very similar. **Turns:** Female students had more turns than the male students, but again the means for female and male students were similar.	**Acts:** Male students used significantly higher proportions of high-initiative acts. **Turns:** Female students had a near-significant higher proportions of initiative-bearing turns. The Student Gender hypothesis was thus not supported, and there was some support for its opposite.
Tutor Gender Hypothesis (H_3(a)) **Acts:** No significant difference was found with respect to student discourse act participation relative to that of tutors in male-led and female-led tutorials. **Turns**: No significant difference was found with respect to student turn proportions relative to those of tutors in the male-led and female-led tutorials. **Tutor Gender Hypothesis (H_3(b))** **Acts**: In male-led tutorials, male students used very significantly more discourse acts	**Acts:** No significant difference was found in terms of high-initiative as opposed to low- initiative acts between students in the male-led and female-led tutorials. **Turns:** No significant difference was found with respect to initiative and non-initiative-bearing turns between students in the male-led and in female-led tutorials. **Acts:** In male-led tutorials, male students used more high-initiative acts than female students.

than female students. In female-led tutorials, female students used more discourse acts than the male students.	In female-led tutorials, no significant difference was found between the males and females with respect to discourse act initiative.
Turns: In male-led tutorials, the male turns per student were very significantly higher and in female-led tutorials, the female turns per student were very significantly higher, suggesting quite strongly that tutors had more positive effects on students of the same gender.	**Turns:** In male-led tutorials, no significant difference was found with respect to initiative and non-initiative-bearing turns between the males and females. In female-led tutorials, however, a near-significant difference was found, with female students taking relatively more initiative-bearing turns.

Table 5.2 Summary of findings for H4

Tutor A	Tutor E
Tutor A asked more closed display questions in relation to open referential questions in T112.	Tutor E asked more open referential questions in relation to closed display questions in T114.
The closed display questions produced very short, syntactically less complex responses.	The open referential questions generated elaborate student output with syntactically more complex sentences.
The students in T112 had a higher percentage of low-initiative acts (i.e. reply-informs) than the students in T114, thus suggesting a strong link between closed display questions and low-initiative acts.	The students in T114 had a higher percentage of high-initiative acts (i.e. informs) than students in T112, thus suggesting a strong link between open referential questions and high-initiative acts. .
In T311, Tutor A asked more open referential question in relation to closed display questions.	In T301, Tutor E asked more open referential question in relation to closed display questions and far fewer closed display questions than Tutor A.

Open referential questions in T311 produced a high number of student informs.	Open referential questions in T301 generated interaction with counter-informs, comments and informs (i.e. high-initiative acts).

The finding in relation to Hypothesis 1, The Year of Study hypothesis, that third-year students outperformed the first-year students in the number of discourse acts and also at discourse act initiative and turn taking levels is similar to that of Webb (1983), who found that his third-year students participated more frequently than his first-years. His focus, however, was just on the amount of time used by the students relative to the tutors, while mine is on both quantity and quality of participation, with respect to both acts and turns. An important implication of my finding is that it provides a considerable degree of validation for the analytical framework put forward in this study. The analytical finding with respect to this hypothesis aligns closely with our general expectation that third-years would do better, given their longer exposure to English as the language of teaching and learning at university, more confidence in using this language in spoken interactions and the fact that they have successfully completed two years studying in English. The finding thus suggests that the framework on which it is based does indeed appear to measure participation effectiveness between first-year and third-year students. Some further validation for the analytical framework is the general impressions elicited from the sample of lecturers in the Department of English, who also indicated that the third-years participated more effectively than first-years and that the latter group needed a lot of guidance until they also gained confidence to express themselves freely in tutorial discussions.

The findings regarding the Student Gender hypothesis (H$_2$) formulated as a directional hypothesis in favour of the males participating more effectively, indicated that female students used more discourse acts than the males, but the relative performance per individual student showed only a very slight difference

in discourse act participation. The female students also had a higher number of turns than the males and fewer non-initiative-bearing turns and the statistical test indicated a strong tendency towards a significant difference in favour of females. This finding contradicts earlier research which found that female students talked less both in frequency and duration than the male students (Brooks 1982; Coates and Cameroon 1988). In these studies, however, neither the gender parity issue nor performance per individual student were considered. This was also the case in De Klerk (1994, 1995a & 1995b) and Sternglanz and Lyberger-Ficek (1977), where the males participated more than the females. In Ricks and Pyke (1973 in Smith 1991:40), where males and females were equal in number, equal achievement and similar interaction patterns were reported. This suggests that unequal numbers can affect participation, supporting the findings of my study, where the importance of this factor has been pointed up through the provision of means-per person as well as group statistics.

The findings with regard to the effects of tutor gender on students of different genders indicated that the females' mean values for discourse acts in the female-led tutorials were four times higher than those of the females in the male-led tutorials. The males' mean values also for discourse acts in the male-led tutorials, on the other hand, were higher than those of the males in the female-led tutorials. Also, in terms of turn participation, the male turns per student were higher than those of the females in the male-led tutorials, while in the female-led tutorials, the female turns per student were higher than those of the male students. This finding contradicts earlier findings by Boersma et al. (1981), who found that the male students performed better than the females and interacted with female teachers more than the female students; by Smith (1991), whose observation showed that the female teachers interacted more with the male students than with the female students, but the male teachers were equitable in their interactions with both male and female students; by Duff et al (2001) whose study revealed that female teachers showed a greater tendency than the male teachers to interact more with males than female students; and De Klerk (1995a

and 1995b), whose findings indicated that the female tutor nominated more male students than female students in her tutorial group than the male tutor in his tutorial group. My study differs from theirs in a number of ways. Again, because of the unequal numbers of males and females in the female-led tutorials, I considered individual student performance at discourse act and turn participation levels and this is an important factor which the earlier researchers did not accommodate.

The findings with respect to the Tutor Discourse Behaviour hypothesis (H_4) indicated that Tutor A and Tutor E asked more open referential questions than closed display questions and closed referential questions. The open referential questions produced extended student discourses with very high numbers of informs, while the closed display questions tended to generate reply-informs, thus showing a strong link between open referential questions and high-initiative acts, and between closed display questions and low-initiative acts. None of the other studies analysed (Brock 1986; Hung 2004; Long and Sato 1983; Siposova 2007; Suter 2001; Tichapondwa 2008,Tuan et al. 2010) considered connections between the questions and the resulting discourse in this way. However, there seems to be an agreement in their findings that closed display questions outnumber by far open referential ones and that asking open referential questions is important because they trigger longer, syntactically complex responses and increase student participation more than closed display questions. In the present study tutors used closed display questions and closed referential questions as follow-up questions, which provided links between student turns and contributed to sustaining the interactions in the tutorials. In Tuan et al. (2010:32), similarly, follow-up questions generated more opportunities for learners to practice the target language and encouraged them to maintain the floor during discussions.

5.2.3 Applied level

As indicated in Chapter 1, this study focused primarily on making a contribution at the theoretical-methodological and descriptive levels. However, insights from the study have the potential to also be of value at a more applicational level. Using the analytical framework to describe and evaluate spoken discourse in university tutorials revealed insights about tutorials for South African Black university students studying in an additional language (i.e. English) that is not their mother tongue. The findings confirmed the differences in participation effectiveness between first-year and third-year students and this implied that in tutorials tutors should provide assistance to first-years more than third-years to build up their confidence in spoken discourse, as also indicated by one of the lecturers interviewed after watching the video recordings of the first-year and third-year tutorials:

> first-year tutors should encourage the students, especially at our
> university, where students are not given freedom of expression.
> So, a tutor needs to play a slightly more central role but only to
> provoke a discussion and not to lead the discussion(Lecturer 5).

Playing this role effectively, especially by lecturers who have very little experience of tutorials, could be helped if such lecturer were made aware not only of the findings of studies such as mine but also of aspects of the framework, so that they could have a better idea of what kinds of questions tend to facilitate discourse act and turn-taking initiative.

The findings of this study with respect to gender differences have implications for the recognition of female students in tutorials in terms of equal talk opportunities, particularly because the findings of the Student Gender hypothesis indicated that they were more able to get the speech floor through self-

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selections, while the males tended to hold the floor better through sequences. If these findings are typical of local students at predominantly 'Black' South African universities, tutors could be made aware of these different tendencies so that they are better able not only to accommodate them but also to consider why they are there and what kinds of cultural factors might be responsible for them.

5.3 Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research

In this section the limitations of the study as well as a few suggestions for further research are presented. The limitations highlighted below have to do with the analytical framework and the methodology applied in the study.

The first limitation relates to the operational definitions of the discourse acts. Despite improvements to these definitions in this study, there is still a degree of subjectivity in their application (though this is of course inevitable in discourse analysis). It was also not possible to train a second researcher to analyse the data for comparison. This would potentially have enhanced the validity of the analytical framework, but it was not possible because my department did not have any postgraduate research students or colleagues available to act in that capacity. It is true that virtually all the other studies involving the development of such frameworks that I consulted, such as De Klerk (1994, 1995a) and Hunt (1997), also lacked co-analysts and this should be easier to organise in institutional projects rather than individual studies such as mine.

The second limitation relates to testing the validity of the cline of initiative which was piloted on a rather small scale, with the rating of the different discourse acts being done by only ten lecturers. Although the result revealed a binary structure of high-initiative and low-initiative acts rather than a cline of initiative, as in Hubbard (1998), this was a pilot study. Deeper insight into initiative as a measure of quality in students spoken discourse in tutorials could be arrived at in a larger study.

Despite these limitations, the support for the Year of Study hypothesis is an indication that the framework did measure participation effectiveness between first-year and third-year tutorials. Further support for the framework derives from the Department of English lecturers' evaluations of the first-year and third-year tutorials which were broadly similar to the differences found for the first-year and third-year groups. The framework I have used is in effect an attempt to explicate what lies behind the positive and negative impressions of lecturers. The explication is arrived at here by way of the analytical framework that attempts to measure not only quantity in discourse but also quality, and this measuring is essentially a quantitative matter. However, further research in this area could complement mine by being more qualitative, involving more detailed interviews with tutors and also students in order to get more of an 'insider' perspective and arrive at a 'softer' description (Nunan 1992:23). A methodological limitation of the study was the gender imbalance in the tutorials. This was largely because tutorials were not compulsory and were conducted for the purposes of the study, thus the imbalance could not be prevented. The situation was normalised by analysing the acts and turns per individual , which indicated differences in the participation of male and female students in the tutorials. In other studies (e.g. De Klerk (1994, 1995a and 1995b and Sternglanz and Lyberger-Ficek 1977) the gender imbalance was not considered, yet it is important as shown in Ricks and Pyke (1973 in Smith 1991:40). In a large scale study, the gender imbalance would be better addressed by having all-male and all-female groups, and comparing them also with a set of equally balanced mixed-gender groups.

As explained in Chapter 3, because tutorials in the Department of English were introduced specifically for the study, the lecturers had to be requested to participate as tutors and also to be interviewed. The four lecturers who participated in my study conducted eight tutorials and I took the other eight. Because of this, I ended up with more tutorial groups than the other tutors. This situation is similar to that in many qualitative studies where the researcher is also

a participant and it should not have compromised the validity of the study, as I developed the analytical framework long after the tutorials had been introduced and recorded.

A further methodological limitation is the fact that eye gaze could not be captured as I had only one camera and one cameraman. In an ideal situation, I would have taken notes as an observer of what was happening in the tutorials. Hunt (1997) also found it difficult to determine the role of eye gaze in her study, even though it was part of her model, partly because African students tended not maintain eye contact as this signals politeness. In my study I had to rely on verbal selection only when, for instance, identifying allocations.

5.4 Conclusion

The central construct investigated in this study, participation effectiveness, provided insights about the differences in participation between first-year and third-year students, between the males and females in male-led and female-led tutorials and also about how tutor discourse behaviour influenced the amount and quality of the students' interactions. It also provided a means of explicating analytically the kind of features the Department of English lecturers responded to when making impressionistic evaluations of the quality of students' discourse in the tutorials.

Reflecting on my study, I would therefore conclude that investigating students' participation in terms of this construct and its components has opened up possibilities for further debate on the effectiveness of university tutorials in fostering active participation so that they do not only expand understanding of subject areas and 'provide supportive learning environments where students feel able to explore problems and demonstrate growing competence' (Shaw et al. 2008:705), but also improve students' spoken discourse competence in a language which, in South Africa, is so often not their mother tongue.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1- TUTORIALS

KEY

Italics- for male participants

…- signal a short pause of approximately three seconds

…- bold dots signal interruptions

([ ]) –overlaps

 First-year tutorials begin with 1 e.g. T105, and third-year tutorials with 3 e.g.

T301

CI- counter-inform

C- comment

E- elicit

I-inform

RI-reply-inform

A-acknowledge

TUTORIAL-112

	E->
[Self-selection][1]Tutor:	In other words the price suited the accommodation? **(Closed referential**/

E->
Anything else you want to say about question two?
(Open referential)
        E->
Was it a suitable accommodation or location for the renter?
(Closed referential)

                    I->   I->

[Self-selection][2]Dorothy: I think she takes the writer as an African./ The prices as

I->
they are, are reasonable,/the writer can afford./
            I->
And looking at the background that the writer comes
                        I->   I->
from/ the writer comes from Africa,/ so even if the place

 is not that smart, //but as long as he can afford the price,//
            RI->
I think the place is suitable for him.

                                E->
[Sequence][3]Tutor: Why was the landlady more concerned about her

premises than his confession?**(Open referential)**
                                    I->
[Self-selection][4]Baboloki: I think the place is not suitable for the landlady.
                                  CI->   I->
[Sequence] [5]Tutor: No, the landlady doesn't need a place./ She is just renting it
                                    E->
out./ So why does he say, 'nothing remained, except total

confession?'**(Open referential)**
                                    I->
[Self-selection][6]Dorothy: I think here the landlady wanted to convince

this African man that you can just come/ and have
                                I->
a look at yourself how the place looks like.

                                CI->   CI->   CI->
[Sequence][7]Tutor: I don't think so./ I don't think so./ I don't think she

offers him that opportunity to come and see./
                            I->
She wants to finish the conversation on the phone./
                            I->
This is why when she listens to the accent/ she
                            I->
wanted to know what nationality he was./
                                I->
When the writer says,' nothing remained',/ in other words he
                            I->   I->
was satisfied with the location./ He wouldn't have expected
                                                        I->
anything better for the price./ But then what was left

as a further qualification for him to get this accommodation was

his skin colour.
                            D->   E->
 Can we move on to question three?/ What are

the techniques that the poet uses to achieve dramatic

effect in this poem?/**(Open referential)**

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                                        RI->
[Self-selection][8]Baboloki:         I think the writer uses punctuation to pay

                                     attention to details.
                                                 E->
[Sequence][9]Tutor:                  Can you say that again?(Closed display: clarification request)
                                          I->
[Sequence][10]Baboloki:              I think the poet uses punctuation in various places

                                      to help us pay attention to details.

                                       E->
 [Sequence][11] Tutor:               What else?(Open referential)/
                                      I->
                                     I can see you have taken that from a

                                      commentary.
                                                 RI->
[Sequence][12]Baboloki:              The use of sentences.
                                     A->      E->
[Sequence][13]Tutor:                 Right/, such as what?(Closed referential)
                                                 RI->
[Sequence]14]Baboloki:               The ringing of the telephone, the crushing sound

                                      of...
                                             E->
[Sequence][15]Tutor:                 What about the other details? / (Open referential)
                                             I->
                                     The other techniques that we use in poetry…

                                     like the use of the figures of speech, e.g. metaphor./


                                             E->
                                      Can you give an example of a  metaphor?(Closed display)


                                             RI->
[Self-selection][16]Dorothy:         Like playing rail./



                                              E->
[Sequence] 17]Tutor:                  Is that a metaphor?/(Closed display)
                                                   I->
                                      Like burned… that's a simile…/
                                             I->        I->
                                      It's a simile,/not a metaphor./
                                     I->
                                     But// when you say' the palm of my hand and the

                                      toes of my feet are peroxide',// those are metaphors…/
                                      E->
                                      right?/(Confirmation check)
                                             I->
                                     Remember the difference between a metaphor and a simile./
                                                                E->
                                      So, apart from similes and metaphors, what else?
                                     (Open referential)/
```

E->   E->
Any senses?(**Closed referential**)/ What about onomatopoeia?/
I->   **(Open referential)**

You know that it is the sound that represents the word./

E->
Can you see that in line 14?**(Closed display)**/
I->
So, he has used the figures of speech which we normally
I->
find in poetry/ and he has used senses./
E->
What else?**(Open referential)**
RI->
[Self-selection][18]Didimas: The images.
E->
[Sequence][19]Tutor: Such as?(**Open referential**)
RI->
[Sequence]20]Didimas: Lipstick quoted, long road…
I->
[Sequence][21]Tutor: Red pillar box, red booth./
E->
Can you see that ' r' sound in line 13?(**Closed display**)/
E->
Can you also see the 'b' sounds in line 11- button B,

button A**…(Closed display**)
I->
[Sequence][22]Didimas: Also the senses.
A->   I->
[Sequence23]Tutor: Yes, yes./ He smells something in the phone boot.. /

E->
How is the mutual suspicion between the speakers in

this poem**…? (Open referential)**
RI->
[Sequence]24]Didimas: …I think she is able to tell that the colour is African from

the accent.
E->   E->
[Sequence][25] Tutor: Is she really able to tell? /**(Closed referential)**

What makes you say that, Didimas? **(Open referential)**

RI->
[Self-selection][26]Dorothy: I think she is just suspecting that the caller might be an African.
E->
[Sequence][27]Tutor: What makes you say that?/(**Open referential**)
I->
Look at line 18.
E->
[Sequence**]**[28]Dorothy: 18?

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                                RI->            E->
[Sequence][ 29]Tutor:     Yes/, who asks that question?(Closed display)
                                RI->
[Sequence][30]Dorothy:    It is the Landlady.
                                        I->
[Sequence][31]Tutor:      So, that indicates that she wasn't sure of the colour,

                          ethnicity and background.
                                        I->
                          So, this is why she says,' are you dark or very light./
                                        I->
                          In other words when you say accent convinced her

                          that might not be correct because the mere fact that
                                                        I->
                          she asks the question/ it means that the  accent of the

                          caller confused her.
                                        I->                              I->
                          She could not place him anywhere./ She did not know

                          what his nationality was./
                                        I->                                      E->
                          So, this is why she asks that question./ So , what about the

                          caller?(Open referential)
                                        I->
[Sequence][32]Dorothy:    The caller is trying to convince the landlady by

                          saying…
                                                E->
[Sequence]33] Tutor:      …line 22, can you read that?(Closed display)
                                        RI->
[Sequence][34]Dorothy:    Not all together.
                                        I->                              I->
[Sequence][35]Tutor:      Not all together./ 'Facially unburned, but madam you should

                          you should see the rest of me, palm of my hand, soles of
                                                I->
                          my feet. / I have peroxide blond…'/
                                        E->
                          So, what do we say?(Open referential)/

                          What is the development of this feeling

                          in the last 8 lines of the poem, from line 26/27, ' facially

                          unburned, but madam you should rather see for yourself'?
                                        E->
                          Why does he give this description?(Open referential)/
                                                E->
                          What does it tell us about the caller and also about the

                          attitude of the landlady?(Open referential)
                                        I->
[Sequence][36]Dorothy:     I think by then Africans or Black people did not mix
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with the Whites or other residents./

       I->   I->

By saying this,/ the caller is trying to convince the

madam to think that he is light complexioned, /

 I->

because //if you are light in complexion// they can accept

 you.

        E->

[Sequence][37]Tutor: Does he succeed**?(Closed referential**)/

Is he able to convince the landlady?(**Closed referential**)/

                      I->

It doesn't seem he succeeded in convincing the landlady/

                      I->

because the Landlady doesn't seem to understand what

he means by burned and all these colours./

       E->

Now what does it show about the poet?(**Open referential**)

       I->   I->

[Sequence][38]Dorothy: I think he is being creative./ He knows how to…

  E->   E->

[Sequence][39]Tutor: Is that all?(**Closed referential**)/ Is that all?(**Closed referential**)/

              E->

Is he not being sarcastic?(**Closed referential)/**

       E->

 Is there no sarcasms in the poem that there

are people who insist on colour?(**Closed referential**)/

I->

But// when you explain the colour of your skin,// they get

confused themselves.

       E->

 Is it not being sarcastic? (**Closed referential**)/

        E->

Is he not humorous and laughing at them? (**Closed referential)/**

         I->

Because I think that is one of his intentions

 to say here are the people who insist on knowing

                      I->

 the colour of the skin,/ but// when you try to explain it

to them,// they get confused themselves./

       E->

What else can you say about the poem?(**Open referential)/**

E->
What are your impressions about the poem? **Open referential)/**
I->
We need to compare it with the poem that we discussed

E->
yesterday./ What can you say about this one**?/(Open**
referential)
E->
What makes it difficult?/ **(Open referential**)
E->
Did you enjoy it? (**Closed referential**)
E->   E->
If you did, why…?If you didn't, why not,

Tsweni?(**Open referential**)
I->
[40]Tsweni: I think I enjoyed the poem/ because unlike the

way the Whites…

I->
[Sequence][41]Tutor: We are talking about the poem.
A->   I->
[Sequence][42]Tsweni: Okay,/ the poem itself.
CI->
[Sequence][43] Tutor: Not about Black and White./
I->
The structure of the poem, the techniques that
I->
the writer has used…/if you compare it with the poem that
E->
we discussed yesterday,/ do you find this one better or

not?(**Closed referential**)

I->
[Self-selection][45]Didimas: At first I didn't think this was a poem/
I->
because in poems we normally find that there

are spaces in between the stanzas./
I->   I->
And the way this one is,/ it is written like a story./
I->
And also the use of figures of speech in the poem,

it's like there is a conversation between two people in

the poem.
I->   E->
[Sequence][46] Tutor: But we do find figures of speech in poems… / don't we?

(Closed display: confirmation check)
RI->
[Sequence][47]Didimas: We do.

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I->   I->
[Sequence][48]Tutor: We do find metaphors and similes./ And they are

                              more common in poems than any other forms of

                                        E->
                              writing./ What about other people?(**Open referential**)
                              I->
[Self-selection][49] Dorothy: When I compare this poem with the one that we
                                                    I->
                              did yesterday,/ I think the one we did yesterday

                              was easy to understand./
                              I->   I->
                              Let me say .../ but this one, I had to take my
                                        I->   I->
                              dictionary/ and look for some words./It took sometime

                              for me to understand.
                                        E->
[Sequence]50] Tutor: Like which words**?(Closed referential)**
                              RI->
[Sequence][51]Dorothy: Like stereotype and peroxide blond.
                                        I->
[Sequence]52] Tutor: `   But peroxide blond is a colour.
                              A->   I->
[Sequence][53]Dorothy: Yes…/I didn't know they were colours.
                               A->   E->
[Sequence]54]Tutor: Okay./ Yes,/ what else**?(Open referential)/**
                                        I->
                              I think this poem is quite interesting in my opinion/
                                        I->
                              because the writer is trying to tell us how Whites

                               treated Black people./
                                        I->
                              They treated them in a different way than
                                                I->   I->
                               themselves./ That is a long time ago,/ when the White

                              ladies in England were not particularly happy with renting out
                                                                  I->
                               their apartments to Africans./And he is writing during that time./
                                 D->   I->
                               Can we stop here?/ Dorothy says she had to look up some
                                                I->
                               words in a dictionary,/ but I explained them.
                                                        I->
[Sequence**]**[55] Dorothy: I looked at the explanation in the dictionary.
                                                        I->
[Self-selection][56]Tsweni: There is something that I don't understand about line

                              11, 'button A and button B'.

                              I->   I->
[Self-selection][57] Tutor: That is a phone./ Normally a phone has these buttons./

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I->   I->
          You press button A, /maybe button A is for

          Talk and button B is for Language etc./

                    E->   I->
          Can we stop here? / I found this poem easy compared to
                                            I->
          the one we did yesterday./This one is written like a conversation.
                                   CI->
[Self-selection][58]Didimas: But it doesn't look like a poem.
                                   I->
[Sequence][59]Tutor: I agree that it doesn't look like a poem.
                         I->
          Thank you.

I->
[Self-selection][1]*Tutor*: We have to have concrete examples from the Play./ Let's

I->   E->
start with the first one./ What causes cultural alienation in

the play? / **(Open referential)**

I->
In the play we have two types of cultures,/ the

I->   E->
African and the European cultures./ What do you think

causes cultural alienation?**(Open referential)**

I->
[Self-selection][2]Paulina: I think it's education.

I->   E->
[Sequence][3]Tutor: Paulina thinks it' s education./ Do you agree?/(**Closed referential)**

E->
Why do you think it's education?(**Open referential**)/

E->
What from the play can convince you that it's education?

(**Closed referential**)/

E->
What things do we see as part of his culture? **(Open referential)/**

I->
But because of education, he seems to be alienating himself

from these things.

I->
[Self-selection][4]Benny: I think somewhere in the play, he tells us that he would

like to live a life with his wife sitting at table, eating

with fork and knife, no longer using his fingers./ I think

I->
somehow it shows that he's got education./ He also got

I->   I->
a different style of living,/ which is not the way of living in

his own village./

E->
[Sequence][5]Tutor: Is it a bad thing?(**Closed referential**)/

E->
What do other people think?**(Open referential)/**

In your view, when you look at Lakunle, do you think he is

E->
… / does the writer want us to laugh at this man?**(Closed referential**)/

or does it say here is a man who has European education/ and seems to

E->
be alienating himself form the African culture?(**Closed referentia**l)?/

What do you think is the writer's main aim in creating that character,

Lakunle?(**Open referential)**

                    I->   I->

[Sequence][6]*Benny*:   I think the writer is unfair to Lakunle/ because he is the sole

person in this whole village who seems to be favouring the

                              I->   I->

European values./ No one is supporting him./ He is against

                                    I->

Sidi, Sadiku and Baroka/ and most of the villagers are

                                      I->

against his views./ So, I think the writer is very unfair to

                                    I->

Lakunle./He seems like an idiot among these people./

                    E->

[Sequence][7]Tutor: Do you people agree?**(Closed referential)**/

                    E->

Is that the main aim?**(Closed referential)**

                  I->

[Self-selection][8]Paulina: I think another aim is that the writer wants to show

us how important our culture is and that we must respect

our culture more than European.

                    E->

[Sequence][9]Tutor: Are these things in the play that make Lakunle

half African, half European**?(Closed referential)**

                E->

Is he a real European?/ (**Closed display**)/I mean would you

                      E->

say this culture is right for him in everything**?(Closed display)**

                  I->

[Self-selection][10]Lucky: I think Lakunle is not a real European./ He is not a

          CI->   I->

complete European/ because he doesn't' fulfill this

culture.

                    E->

[Sequence][11]Tutor: The mere fact that he is the only one who seems to

be propagating this European culture, what does that

show us? **(Open referential)**

                    I->

[Self-selection][12]Benny: I would like to say Lakunle so far is the only

                              I->

teacher of the whole village./ And he is the only

                              I->

person who dresses like the Europeans, /although we

hear that he dresses old age style./

                    E->

[Sequence][13]Tutor: And what would you say about that?**(Open referential)**/

What is the writer's aim in portraying him like that?**(Open referential)**

              I->

[Sequence][14]Benny: I think the writer's aim in portraying him like that,

                                       I->

although he likes to live like Europeans,/ he is still far

                            I->   I->

behind you know./ He still has a lot to learn./ He likes

                             C->

to be a European,/ but he can't be a proper one.

         E->   E->

[Sequence][15]Tutor: What else?/ What do you think about that?**(Open referential)/**

                  I->

Remember there are no right or wrong answers./

        I->   E->

We all have views./ What do you want to say about

this cultural alienation?**(Open referential)/**

                  E->

Does it only show in the bride price issue?(**Closed referential**)/

                  E->

or does it show in the other things?**(Closed referential)**

            I->

[Sequence][16]Benny: The way he greets and proposes love that he wants

                             I->

to marry like a white man./ He gradually presents

                          I->

himself as a very civilised man./He does not know his

tradition or Customary way of falling in love with a girl,

that paying a bride price you are my woman or you

are my wife.

           E->

[Sequence][17]Tutor: So, what does that mean?**(Open referential)**

               I->

[Sequence][18]Benny: I think it also shows that this is cultural alienation

that he does not do like what the other boys

                          I->

in the village do./ He wants to do it in a different way.

               E->

[Sequence][19]Tutor: And what about all these things that he says,

that when you are my wife you won't eat the left

leftover's of my plate, you wont' have to carry water

on your head, its not good for your spine, you will be

like a squash drawing of my pupils?'(**Open referential**)

            I->

[Sequence][20]Benny: All those, you realise that he really wants to be nice, to

                       I->

treat her like a queen./ But that is foreign to Sidi./ She

I->

does not understand all those things he wants to do to show

her that really he is a man.

I->

[Sequence][21]Tutor: So, there is conflict here between the two cultures, /

I->   E->

the African and the European./ And which one seems

to win?**(Closed referential)**

I->

[Self-selection][22]Paulina: Lakunle married Sidi at the end.

I->

[Self-selection][23]Lucky: The European culture seems to win at the end/

I->

because Lakunle agreed to marry Sidi,/

I->

although she was no longer a virgin.

I->

[Self-selection][24]Tutor: Thank you.

D->
[Self-selection][1]Tutor: Can you try maybe to…to answer individually those

three steps in an attempt to answer the whole question./
E->
Firstly, is there any individual who can try to highlight the

principles that are expected from the Christians as an

introduction to the question?(**Closed referential)**

E->
[Self-selection] [2]Tony: What is expected from the Christians?
I->
[Self-selection] [3]Maria: We are expected to believe in God, not to commit adultery,

to behave in a good manner and not to kill.

I->
[Self-selection][4]Mark: I think … and according to the Ten Commandments

we are told to love thy neighbour as ourselves.
A->
[Self-selection][5]Tutor: OK.
I->
[Sequence][6]Mark: Do unto others what you'd like them do unto you./
I->
And the fact that you are not supposed to judge

in the story line, it does not follow that…
I->
[Sequence][7]Tutor: …that trend.
I->
[Sequence][8] Mark: That trend does not follow which of course

is a Christian way**…** practical way of life.
E->
[Sequence][9] Tutor: So, what you are saying is**…** there's a

contradiction?**(Closed referential)**
RI->   I->
[Sequence][10]Mark: There's a contradiction./But… // when we look at the

first act in the first few lines,// there we see that the girls

were up to mischief in the woods dancing over the fire
I->
naked, drinking blood/ that is directly consenting with the
I->
devil ./They are rendering their souls over to the devil.

	A->
[Sequence][11]Tutor:	Alright!

	I->
[Sequence][[12] Mark:	Which is contradictory of the people who

grew up within the democratic state**…**they grew up./

  A->

[Sequence][13]Tutor:	Sure.

        I->

[Sequence][14]Mark:	They grew up with these values reinforced within

         I->

them./ And it means even the examples from their own

elders were such that they were reinforced within a

               I->

bureaucratic, puritanical way of life./ Now contradictions

           I->

give us something else./It brings us back to individuals, not

the whole community.

  A->

[Sequence][15] Tutor:	OK!

          I->   I->

[Sequence][16]Mark:	In that as this dishonesty is taking place /even when

               I->

the preacher sees with his own eyes that deed,/ he tries

          I->

to conceal it /by not wanting the matter being heard

            I->

by the community,/ which does not make him an honest

person.

        I->

[Sequence][17] Tutor:	And for that matter he is a preacher...

      A->

[Sequence][18]Mark:	He is a preacher.

  A->

[Sequence][19] Tutor:	OK!

        I->

[Sequence][20] Mark:	And with the concepts like greediness, which are lustful…

  I->

[Sequence][21]Tutor:	…values.

     CI->   I->

[Sequence][22]Mark:	Not values, /they are lustful desires emanating from

           I->

the facts like eh**…** /all he wants is land and more money./

     I->

He just wants to acquire more money at the expense of

other people getting poorer./

       I->

Which means ill-health, bad sanitation and so on./

       I->

And which are direct results of him taking their own

I->   I->
land./ He actually wants people to die quicker/ so that he
                                        I->
could win their own land./ Such thoughts show that

 the spirit of godliness is not within him.
                    A->   I->   E->
[Sequence][23] Tutor: OK!/ It also highlights selfishness./ Anybody to add to that?/
                                                        (Open referential)
                        E->
                What about Abigail?**(Open referential)**
                                I->
[Self-selection][24]Tebogo: Actually, she was in love with Proctor.
                                        CI->   I->
[Self-selection][25]Mark: I do not think they were in love. /It was adultery.
                                  C->   C->
[Self-selection][26]Tony: It was lust./ The fact is that they had an affair.
                                    A->
[Self-selection][27]Tebogo: They had an affair.
                                  CI->
[Self-selection][28]Mark: But there is nowhere… where it is written.
                                A->   C->   I->
[Self-selection][29]Tutor: Yeah./ It is not necessarily an affair./ They were just flirting.
                                    CI->
[Self-selection] [30]Tony: But we both know that Elizabeth suspected that Abigail and
                                                            I->
                Proctor had an affair./And indeed that affair did exist.

                                    I->
[Self-selection][31]Mark: Well, as we are pointing out in the text,

 it was mentioned.
                                            C->   I->
[Sequence][32] Tony: That is why that thing is adultery,/ having an affair

 with a married man.
                                    CI->
[Sequence][33]Mark: But no where is it mentioned that it goes on and it stops.

                                CI->   I->
[Sequence][34]Tony: No, there is./ I mean… by reading the book one can
                                                        I->
                conclude that./But somewhere it was mentioned in

                the text that John Proctor was asked to mention the
                                            I->   I->
                Ten commandments./He did as he was told./But failed
                                                            E->
                 to mention one commandment./ Why did he fail to
                                                                I->
                mention that commandment?/ Its because he was
                                    I->   I->
                aware that it speaks with him./He was aware that

I->
                        'I did this thing /and I cannot say it'.
                                          E->
[Sequence][35]Mark: Which was?
                                          I->
[Self-selection][36]Maria: The one that says, 'Thou shall not commit adultery.' /
                                          I->
                        He did not say it.
                                          I->
[Sequence][37]Mark: But from the beginning of the text up until the end

                        that is not the only thing we come across./
                                                I->
                        And it cannot be up to us to say it is an affair,/
                                          I->   I->
                        to paint a bigger picture/ and say it was an affair.
                                          I->
                        Yes, we can mention that it was adultery
                                                I->   I->
                        that is given./ It is adulterous,/ even if it was not written
                                                     I->
                        within the text./It is adultery by the fact that the system
                                                          I->
                        they lived under was bureaucratic/ and it is contravening
                                          I->
                        the.../But //then the wife was aware…//she knew./ But as
                                          I->
                        much as the spiritual improvement occurs in the end,/
                                          I->
                        he stands for good and not for evil./
                                          I->
                        John Proctor himself stands for good.

                                          I->   I->
[Self-selection] [38]Tony: He is for good things./ But in the end, in the dark

                        stage the society did not expect evil./
                                          CI->
[Self-selection][39] Maria: No, John Proctor improved his spiritual what
                                          I->   I->
                        ... /After committing that adultery,/ he started to
                                             I->
                        change /and be a good man.
                                          A->   E->
[Self-selection][40] Mark: Yes, its true./But do you remember when he refused
                                             E->
                        the priest?/ Why was…
                                          I->   I->
[Self-selection][41]Tutor: That was at the beginning./ I mean you need to
                                                               I->
                        look at the whole thing holistically/ in order to identify

                        the development.

                                          I->   I->
[Sequence][42]Mark: In as much as he was adulterous, /but// then in the end

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I->
he stands for good// whereas Abigail…

E->
[Sequence][43]Tutor: He stands for good in what sense?**(Open referential)**
I->
[Sequence][44]Mark: In the sense that John ... I did not mean he was
I->
an honest man/ and the fact that his wife told him
I->
to go and denounce Abigail /or curse her.../ In the
I->
book, it is said that a promise is made.
A->
[Sequence][45]Tutor: Yeah.
I->
[Sequence][46]Mark: Therefore it is rather possible for Abigail to think
I->
that after that night with John, /they would be a
I->   I->
couple/ and have a life thereafter./ So, the advice

to go and curse Abigail was to make her realize

that Elizabeth was married to John./
I->
John himself was aware that he was adulterous/
I->
 not that he promoted adultery./
I->
Therefore in the end, he wanted to give them the
I->
 confession./ But he was problematic as well in the

sense that he refused to sign his name.
I->
[Sequence][47]Tutor: Especially that was going to tarnish his name./
I->   I->
But it makes him a free man./ He had a problem with
I->
the confession./ So, he was concerned about his name
I->
being put at the entrance of the church./ But basically

John Proctor did change by confessing his relationship
I->
with Elizabeth /and he would not do anything like that./
I->
His pride was at stake given that he realized at the

end that dignity is something inherent, in born and not

I->
purchased or given./ He was now fighting for his own
I->
integrity ./ That is why he told them that they had taken

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                                    I->

everything from him,/ but he remained with his name./

        I->

At least, they should leave his name.

        I->

[Sequence][48]Mark: But// when Rebecca appeared,//she was his shining

                             I->

armour./ He decided then that he would not give

them his confession.

        A->

[Sequence][49]Tutor: OK!/

                I->   I->

[Sequence][50]Mark: When that happened,/ Elizabeth was congratulating

him for not being broken by the evil conception

of some other people within the community.

        A->   E->

[Sequence][51]Tutor: Yeah!/ What about Abigail?(**Open referential**)

          E->

Did she improve or deteriorate?(**Closed referential**)

          RI->   I->

[Sequence][52]Mark: I think she deteriorated/ because no where does she

                                I->

confess what they did in the woods./ In return, she

promises to harm the little girl in one way or the other.

         E->

[Sequence][53]Tutor: Threatening her**?(Closed referential)**

      RI->   I->

[Sequence][54]Mark: Yes, threatening her./ And at the end of the day,

                                 I->

it's like she had a spell over her/ because they kept

                                 I->

to the same story until the end./And the story does not

                                    I->

centre around John and Abigail as such./ But they are

                          I->

the pillars of the story/ because Abigail stands for evil./

                        I->

And that evil did not only tempt John or incarcerate,

                 I->

or kill him./ Well, it also took with them a whole lot of

other people from the community who are not mentioned

by name.

        A->   I->

[Sequence][55]Tutor: Yeah! /Thanks./

                                                 I->

[Self-selection][1]Tutor: We will start by discussing that question.

                              I->   I->

[Self-selection][2] Mmathabo :   Caretaker speech contributes a lot/ because it has

                                  I->

                … it uses a lot of simple words and simple sentences/

                              I->

                and so that the child understands what the person**…**

                the mother is saying/.

                         I->   I->

                And also it uses a lot of repetition,/ so that the words

                can be understood by them and questions as well.

                    I->   I->

                If you use questions, /you want the child to interact/ or

                      I->   I->

                communicate. / If you ask them questions…

                A->   I->

[Self-selection][3]Nono: Yes,/ that is pretty much what I understand

                                          I->

                 by caretaker speech./ What she said contributes a lot

                 to the child's first language acquisition in a sense

                 that it gives the child a lot of time to**…** to involve

                                  I->

                 themselves in the language/ and in the process,

                 absorbing the language as well./

                          I->

                 That is how I think caretaker speech does that/

                      I->   I->

                and it is very simple/ so that the child can actually

                                  I->

                be able to learn everything slowly/ or at their own pace

                and absorb …

                      I->

[Self-selection][4]Tutor: When we talk about caretaker speech/

                      E->

                 who is the caretaker?/(**Closed display**)

                        RI->

[Self-selection**]**[5]Rachel: It is the mother, the father, the grandparents,

                everybody who is around the child./

                      I->   I->

[Self-selection][6] Nono :   And talks to the child, you know/ and interacts

with the child.

                                  I->

[Self-selection][7] Mmathabo: If I could give an example of simplifying words/,

you wouldn't use words that a child

                         I->

wouldn't understand…words like,/ if the child

is going to fall, you would say *O a wa*

                                               I->

[meaning that you are going to fall]/ so that the child

                                   I->

understands.. you know./When you give them food

                         I->

you say *ja, ja /*for them to know this is food/ and they

              I->   I->

have to eat./So you use words like that/ in order for

              I->   I->

them to understand/ and in time they would learn to

                                      I->

say *dijo* or food at their own pace/ like you said./

                    I->

[Self-selection][8] Rachel: And like if they want water /the only word,

          I->

that he would get is 'tsi' at the end of *metsi(water) /*

        I->

and he or she would always say *'tsi' /*

                I->

and you would understand that he or she wants water.

                      E->

[Self-selection][9]Tutor: So the mother would find it easy to understand?
                            (Closed referential)

         RI->

[Self-selection][10] Mmathabo: Yeah.

         A->

[Self-selection][11]Rachel: Yeah.
         E->

[Self-selection][12]Tutor: Why**?(Open referential)**
  I->

[Self-selection][13]Nono :   I 'd say, you find the mother even using the language

                              I->

that the child uses,/ so that the child would better

understand./

         I->   I->   I->

They don't say water /or you know, /they won't say the

                        I->

whole word./ They'd just say…they'd just speak/

             I->

so that the child would be able to again understand/

                    I->

and communicate back to the mother.

<pre>
                                        E->
[Sequence][14]Tutor: So even in our languages we do the same?**(Closed referential)**
                                        RI->
[Self-selection][15]Mmathabo: Yes, we do./
                                 A->   D->
[Sequence, allocation][16]Tutor: We do the same./ Then can we look at the other questions./

                                at the other questions./
                                     I->   E->
                                It is the second one./ How much influence does imitation have

                                in the acquisition process?**/(Open referential)**
                                        I->
                                Maybe we should ask Mpho.
                                        I->
            [17] Mpho: Because in most cases you find that a

                                child's first language**…**
                                     I->   C->
[Self-selection][18]Mmathabo: **…** it does play a major role,/ but it is limited./
                                        I->
                                They can't imitate everything that is said,/
                                      I->
                                like she said they only pick up on the sound that

                                the person is saying like she said '*metsi*'. /
                                        I->
                                The last word 'tsi' is the word that they pick up. /
                                        I->   I->
                                They try to imitate that,/ but not everything that they

                                are saying is what they heard from the parents./
                                     I->   C->
                                It plays a major role./ But not as much as
                                                          I->
                                it could have been,/ if they were older./
                                        D->
[Self-selection][19]Tutor: Let's… let's just remember what the nativists

                                are saying about, especially the… the behaviorists are
                                                                  I->
                                 saying about imitation…/ because they

                                they seem to emphasize that it plays a major role./
                                                          I->
                                You know the stimuli and re-enforcement issues./

                                     I->   I->
                                The nativists are looking at input/ but they are not
                                                              I->
                                emphasizing it,/ because through imitation a child is getting

                                input./
                                     I->   I->
                                They are not emphasizing input as such,/ but they are
</pre>

saying the impact it has is the ability to acquire language
     E->
naturally./
     E->   I->
Now input, I mean… does imitation play a role,/ if you look

at the account of the nativists?**(Closed referential)**

	RI-> I->
[Sequence][20]Mmathabo:	It does,/ though as you said they are not

emphasizing on it./
     I->   I->
But it does play a major role./ They hear what you are
         I->
saying,/ they get to understand what you are saying,/ they
        I->   I->
try to say it the way you said it,/ though it wouldn't be as

perfect as you said it.
     E->

[Sequence][21]Tutor:	So are you saying that a child makes utterances that he

has heard from the people around?**(Closed referential**)

	CI-> I->
[Self-selection][22]Nono:	Not really/ because children can be very experimental in

            I->
as far as sounds and words go./ They'd just like to test
         I->
their limits of sound,/ what sounds they can utter./
     I->   I->
Even though they have never heard it/ or scarcely hear it,/
     I->
imitation would not have much influence./
    I->   I->
But children are creative/ or just test themselves…you

know by making…, trying to create their own sounds and

words.
     I->

[Self-selection][23]Rachel:	Sometimes you'd be surprised to hear a

child say something you've actually never said
         I->
before,/ like maybe your name is Nono, / then she would
     I->
just say it like any word not knowing it's your name.
     I->

[Sequence][24**]**Nono:	That is what they are going to call you.
	I->
[Sequence][25]Rachel:	That is your name.
	A->
[Sequence][26**]**Nono:	Exactly!/

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                                          I->
[Sequence][27]Rachel:          By that name not…
                                                  E->
[Self-selection][28]Tutor:     Do we agree that imitation plays a role in the acquisition

                               process?(Closed referential)/
                                                  E->
                                Do we also agree that not all utterances that

                                are made by a child are utterances he's heard?
                               (Closed referential)/
                                                  I->
                                because we've seen that// when we correct them,//
                                                          I->
                                they still make the  same mistake./ They still say

                                the same utterance in a way you feel is incorrect.
                                     A->
[Self-selection][29]Mmathabo:   Hhm!/
                                        E->
[Sequence][30]Tutor:           Anything that you want to say again about imitation?

                               (Open referential)
                                        E->
                                What about second language acquisition?/ (Open referential)
                                        E->
                                How would we transfer that idea of imitation into the second

                                language classroom?/(Open referential)


                                                  I->
[Sequence][31]Mmathabo:        The teacher would just say...like you said in class,/
                                          I->
                                we are using things that are around us ,i.e.
                                                          I->
                                the chalkboard./ She would actually say,  'what is this
                                                  I->
                                class.'/ Because he told us before that is a chalkboard,/
                                          I->                              I->
                                we'd actually have to say it's a chalkboard./ We didn't

                                know  it is a chalkboard./ So we are imitating what she said./

                                        E->                  I->
                                 Isn't it imitation?/ I think it falls under imitation./
                                                  I->
[Self-selection][32]Nono:       I would say imitation plays a much bigger role

                                in second language acquisition than in first
                                                          I->
                                 language acquisition/ because,// then// when

                                you were learning your first language//
                                        I->
                                we'd assume that you'd already been exposed
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I->
to your first language./ Now what you want to

do is to learn to use the second language a
I->
bit/. You… you now have experience in as far as
I->
language is concerned./ Now you'd want to imitate the
I->
second language teacher /so as to… to learn
I->   I->
the language you know,/ but not as much as in the
I->
first language/ because in the first language you were
I->
still not sure about language./ The child would be
I->
ready to absorb anything you know in the…/whereas

in the second language you'd want to know
I->
if this is a chalkboard./ Then that is what
I->
you are going to call it,/ because then when you

are learning your second language assuming that
I->
you'd be learning it from school,/ you'd be grown
I->
up /and you'd know, you'd be able to differentiate
I->
between things now./ If they call this a chalkboard,/
I->   I->
you are going to call it a chalkboard./ Now you are

going to… you are going to try to make less mistakes.
E->
[Self-selection][33]Tutor: In the second language?**(Closed referential)**
I->   I->
[Sequence][34]Nono: That's, ok!/ That is how I learnt my second language./
I->
I think I'm going to just answer that question./
I->
From my…from my experience, that is my experience

in my second language./
E->
[Sequence][35]Tutor: Does that mean you had better exposure to the second

language?**(Closed referential)**
I->   I->
[Sequence][36]Nono: I won't say that/ because when I first acquired my
I->
second language,/ it was not only in class/ because
I->
I had other things like …what was the… that

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I->
Audio lingual thing./ I had tapes and stuff like that./

I->
So, I wouldn't only hear it in the classroom you know/
I->   I->
and I learnt it at a very young age./ So, that was a better…

an advantage for me as well./
E->
[Sequence, allocation][37]Tutor: What about you**?/(Open referential)**
I->
[38]Mmathabo: One other thing, in second language there is no way

you can call something a word that you've never
I->   I->
heard./If they say this is a chalkboard, /it is a
I->
chalkboard./ You cannot come/ and say that it is a

cupboard, if you haven't heard the words before./
I->   I->
So you have to hear somebody say it/ and imitate

what they are saying.

E->
[Sequence][39]Tutor: But what does that mean**?/(Open referential)**
E->
Does it mean that only a child is creative in his

first language?/(**Closed referential**)
I->
Then when it comes to his second language that
E->
creativity goes away?/ Is that what you mean?

(**Closed referential**)
RI->
[Sequence][40]Mmathabo: Actually no.
CI->
[Self-selection][41]Nono: Yes, we do not have much freedom in as far as
I->
creating language./ And you know experimenting
I->
with a lot of words goes/ because in a formal

setting, remember in a classroom we are taught that

this is it and that is how it should be,/
I->
whereas in our first language,//Se*tswana*,
I->
for instance, //we have sounds to absorb/ and a lot

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I->
to experiment/ and play around with.

I->
[Sequence][42] Tutor: So what you are saying is that all the words that you

I->   I->
say/ and all the sentences that you utter/ are sentences

that you have heard from somebody./
I->
You've not been able to create your own.
I->
[Sequence][43] Nono: I would like to progress in our second language./ I do
E->
not know if progress is the appropriate word?/
I->
But when you've been exposed enough to the
I->
second language,/ that is when you can start to make
I->
sense of what you've been taught /and even try to
I->
make up your own things./ But the process is almost
I->
the same./ But it just takes much longer in the second

language than in the first language.

E->
[Sequence][44] Tutor: Why does it take long? **(Open referential)/**
I->
Mpho has been quiet for too long./
E->
Why does it take long to …? (**Open referential**)/
I->
you know we talked about the, … the silent period /…
I->
that is the time when you are just absorbing input /
I->
and I think what you've been saying earlier is that during
I->
that period there isn't much that a second language learner can
I->
utter/ because he still hasn't acquired a lot of
I->
vocabulary/ to be able to say… construct
I->
sentences on his own./ But as you were saying, as
I->
you progress in the acquisition process, /then you
I->
become independent / and can make your own.
I->   I->
[Sequence][45] Nono: And looking at what I've experienced,/ my silent

… silent period was a bit longer in my second

I->
language./I think it took longer than my first language.

E->
[Sequence][46] Tutor: Why is that?**(Open referential)**
RI->
[Self-selection][47] Mmathabo: Because I think that it is not our mother tongue.

A->
[Self-selection][48] Nono: Yes.
I-> I ->
[Sequence][49] Mmathabo: And it is a foreign language for me./ It is not something
I->
that you speak everyday./ You just learn it in class in
I->
that lesson setup./ But //then/ when you go outside// you
I->
speak your own language./ So you are not really

exposed to the language as much as those that are

acquiring it.
I->
[Self-selection, allocation]][50] Tutor: Now let's look at the third question./
E->
Would a child that is locked up in a room daily acquire
I-> E->
language?/ And the question is if yes/, how?
(Open referential)/
I->
Now let's hear from Mpho and Rachel./
I->
They've been quiet.
I->
[51] Rachel: I don't think ...
I->
[Sequence, allocation][52] Tutor: Let's start with Mpho.
I->
[53] *Mpho*: I don't think a child that's been locked up in a room
I->
would acquire language/ because in language

acquisition…
I->
[Sequence][54]Tutor: We can't hear you, Mpho.
I->
[Sequence][55] Mpho: You acquire language.
I-> I->
[Self-selection][56] Rachel: To me it's. no/ because you need to, to get the
I->
child to talk to…/I mean like communicating with
I->
him or her /so that he could get more exposed to the

language./

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                     I->                        I->
               Like if you are the mother/ it's a must.../
                             I->
               because, for example , I had this experience /

                     I->                            I->
               when I was like in Orange Farm, /there was this
                                    I->
                lady.../ she had a child she never talked to, not
                                    I->
               even once./ Today that child cannot speak./


                     E->
[Sequence][57] Tutor :       Really?(Closed referential)


                     RI->        I->
[Sequence][58] Rachel:       Yeah!/ Not even once.
                      I->
[Sequence][59] Tutor:        No!
                             I->
[Sequence][60] Rachel:       I don't know if she was too quiet or shy

                        or something…
                             E->
[Self-selection][61] Nono:   Shy to speak to your own child?
                             I->                I->
[Sequence][62] Rachel:       Because she never...because //when you are talking to

                         the child,/ you are getting him more exposed to…

                       you know.
                      A->             I->                      I->
[Self-selection][63]Tutor:   Yeah./ Can we stop there/ if there are no more questions.
                                    I->         I->
                       Thank you for coming,/ thank you.
```

I->
[Self-selection][1]Tutor: Right, yes so just guess.

I->
[Self-selection][2]Mavis: People.

I->
[Sequence][3]Tutor: Don't be afraid that you'll get a wrong answer that's not

important at this stage.

I->
[Sequence][4]Mavis: People usually think that people who use the left**…**are left

I->
handed or whatever./ They think that**…**the

people who are right**…** who use the right hand are usually

the ones who are able to write properly/ or do whatever

they think that the left hand isn't ok…

E->
[Sequence][5]Tutor: …for writing?**(Closed referential)**

RI->   I->
[Sequence][6]Mavis: For writing or whatever./ Whatever they may**…** they might

be doing to use the...

E->
[Sequence][7]Tutor: So let's**…**/now do you all agree with what she is saying?/

RI->
[8] All: Yes.

I->
[Sequence][9]Tutor: So, according to the whole class, it means this article is

about people who use left hand to write./

I->   I->
So bearing that in mind,/ lets move on to step number two./

I->
Step number two is the abstract or the summary./

I->
So, this is what we have as the summary for the article./

I->
So, may be we could have one person writing**…** you know

what we had for the first point./ So point number

I->
two, as I said about the summary of the whole article

reads as follows: 'It's time our right-handed world gave

lefties a break'

I->   I->
So, we can see now that this is different./ Well let me not

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E->
                              say that./ What do you think this article is all about?
                              (Open referential)

                                   I->
[Self-selection]10]Mavis :   I think that it's that people should give those people who use
                                                                   I->
                              their left hands a chance to do things./ A chance to prove

                              that they can have the abilities to do things.
                                   E->
[Sequence][11]Tutor: To do things?
                               I->
[Self-selection][12]Lydia: Yeah./
                                A->   E->
[Sequence [13]Tutor: OK!, /what do other people say…yes sir?/(**Open referential)**
                                                     I->
[Self-selection][14]Joe: These right handed people should stop now
                                                         I->
                              discriminating the lefties./ And the right and left hand
                                               I->   I->
                              are just the same./ You can do the same work./ You can still
                                              I->
                              write with left,/ you can still write with right./
                                      I->
                              So, people should stop saying right is better than left you

                              see…
                              A->   E->
[Sequence][15]Tutor: Yes/ do you agree?(**Closed referential)**
                              RI->
        [16]All: Yes.
                                A->   I->   I->
[Sequence][17]Tutor: Yes… OK!./ So, let's put that down./ This is what we have now
                                                     I->
                              from the summary./People who use their right hand to
                                                      I->
                               write don't know everything ./ They should stop

                              discriminating against those who use their left hand./
                              A->   I->   I->
                              OK!/ now let's move on to step number three./ Now step

                              number three is the sub-heading which normally

                              summarizes you know the content of the whole./
                                                      I->
                              Now let's look at the sub-heading and read it quickly.
                                           I->
                               So, you can see that every new information that you get

                              you will adjust through this./ I mean it's an improvement from

E->
step one to step three so far, *akere (Do you agree)*?
(Closed referential)

I->
Yes so…that it's ok./

I->   I->
Now this is, this is the process of…/ don't worry about the

incorrect answers that you get after writing something
I->
that is not ok under the summary./ So, the sub-heading

reads as follows: *'Buddhism teaches…the right part which is*
E->
good and the left which is bad'./ So what do you think this

article is all about**…**yes sir?**(Open referential)**
I->
[Self-selection][18]Joe: I still think that in Buddhism they still teach, or they still

discriminate the left because they say the left part

is the one which is bad and the right part is right./
I->
So, it makes the people, who are always left,/ it makes
I->   I->   I->
them feel left out now/ because they are barred./ I think so./
A->   E->
[Sequence][19]Tutor: Ok!/ <u>yes maam</u>**…**?
CI->   I->
[Self-selection][20]Mavis: I was going to say it's not I…/ I don't think it's about
I->
writing with the left hand./ As I said earlier on,/
I->   I->
it's more about the good and the bad part /or…like they say

the right part is good and the left part is good./
CI->
So, I don't think it's about lefties writing with left/
I->   I->
and the right people still discriminating left,/ because they

say…
I->
[Sequence][21] Tutor: … they are discriminating against left, meaning people using
E->
the left hand. /Are you changing your story?(**Closed referential**)
CI->
[Self-selection [22]Lydia: I**…** I**…** I don't think they usually mean hands./
I->
They are talking about life not hands.
E->
[Sequence][23]Tutor: It's all about life not hands?(**Closed referential**)

```
                              I->
[Sequence][24]Lydia:        Yeah.


                                 I->
[Self-selection][25]Mavis:    That's what I was trying to say actually.
                                 I->
[Allocation][26] Joe:          Maam.
                                 I->
          [27]Tutor:            Yes.
                                              I->
[Sequence][28] Joe:     But Buddhism teaches that there are two roads
                                        I->                I->
                        in life./ The right part which is good/ and the left which is
                                        I->
                        bad./ And still in this picture of 1 and 1 , they still show with
                                                            I->
                        the hands… you see./ They mean there is a left hand/ and
                                  I->                      I->
                        there is a right hand./ The left hand which is bad/
                                  I->                          I->
                        and the right hand which is good./ So I still stick  to the

                        point of discrimination./
                                   E->
  [Sequence][29]Tutor:     Discrimination?(Closed display)
                            RI->
[Sequence][30]Joe:        Yes, upon the left.
                          A->                    I->
[Sequence][31]Tutor:      Yeah,/ by the right handed people against the left handed.
                                      I->
[Sequence][32]Joe:        By the left handed.
                          A->            I->
 [Sequence][33]Tutor:     OK,/ you are free to jot down what you think.
                                   I->                              I->
                           Let him also write down step by step. / We'll agree at the end.
                           A->
[Sequence][34] Joe:       Yes.
                                    I->                                         I->
 [Sequence][35]Tutor:     We'll know what we agree on at the end./ So, the two ladies

                          feel that's not  about the left hand and the right hand,/ but
                                          I->
                          the young man says it's about right handed people

                          discriminating against people who are left handed./ And
                                            I->
                          you know Buddhism emphasizes  the discrimination
                                                          I->
                          in its nature. / Now lets look at  the picture that goes
                                                          I->
                          hand in  hand with this article./ This is the picture./
                                      D->                  D->
                          Look at that picture/ and look at what you have
                                              I->
                          written./ We have this guy  with hands on his sides/ and
```

I->
then we have the word right written in capital letters/
I->
and then we have the word left right at the corner there./
I->
And what is also exciting about this picture is that

everything that is in the left on his right hand side is
I->
darker/ and then everything that we have on his right hand
E->
side is bright./ What can we say about…?**(Open referential)**

I->
[Self-selection][36]Lydia: I think the picture illustrates that the right hand side is
I->
always brighter than left hand side./ But it still talks about
I->
the parts/ you can see that person standing and looking

forward…
I->
[Sequence][37]Tutor: So, the person standing and looking at the left hand side

is…?

I->
[Sequence][38]Lydia: …is darker.
A->   I->
[Sequence][39]Tutor: Is darker./ So it implies that there are two roads in life./
E->
So you are still on that?(**Closed display**)
I->
[Sequence][40]Lydia: Yes.
E->
[Sequence][41]Tutor: Yes sir…?**(Open referential)**
I->   I->
[Self-selection][42] Justin :   As my sister has just said now,/ I… I bet that there
I->   I->
are two lives./ There are two ways in life/ because here on
I->   I->
our left hand side there is dark/ on our right hand side

there is…
I->
[Self-selection][43]Lydia: …light.
A->   I->   I->
[Sequence][44]Justin: That's right./ there is light,/ as there are spoons and forks/
I->
which means on my … say right hand
I->
side there are positive things./ There is light./ In short
I->   I->   I->
there … there is life./ There is no joy ./ Yeah, its all I can say.
E->
[Self-selection][45]Tutor: Yes, maam…?**(Open referential)**

<pre>
                                  I->   I->
[Self-selection][46] Joyce: Looking at this picture,/ I can say that this picture

                              somehow advises people that in life they should know

                              what the good things are and what the bad things

                                          I->
                              are./ So that they could make their choices in future.
                               A->
[Sequence][47]Tutor: Aha!.
                               A->
[Sequence][48]Joyce: Yes.
                               A->   E->
[Allocation][49]Tutor: OK!/ so young man are you still on that point?(Closed referential)/
                                          I->
          [50] Joe: Yeah after the picture, I still stand with my point./ But
                                        I->
                              looking at the picture where the right hand is bright and
                                                      I->
                              left hand dark,/ it still shows that since the left is been
                                        I->
                              darkened,/ still more discrimination /because in
                                        I->   I->
                              life I know there are two ways/ and these two ways you
                                                                I->
                              can't see them/ and you can't say this good one is of
                                              I->   I->
                              the right hand/ and this left is bad one ./So, the writer I
                                              I->
                              think did this/ because usually on our right is the
                                              I->
                              powerful hand /and left is the little hand always associated
                                              I->
                              with women./ The women who…
                                     I->
[Sequence][51]Tutor: …the weaker side./
                                     I->
                              Thank you.
</pre>

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E->
[Self-selection][1]Tutor: So which question would you like to begin with?

(Open referential?/
E->
Which question would you like us to start with? **(Open referential)**
I->
[Self-selection][2] Amanda: The one that…
E->
[Sequence][3] Tutor: You want us to start with that one?(**Closed display**)/
I->
Let's start with that question./
I->
[Sequence][4] Amanda: It is possible for an adult to be like a native speaker
I->
of the L2/ if she is in an environment where they speak

a lot of that second language.
I->   I->
[Sequence][5]Tutor: I want us not to use the books./ Please let's
I->
close the book / and make it as natural as possible/
I->   I->
because we are talking,/ we are discussing.

I->
[Sequence][6]Amanda: And I think she would basically understand,/ if they...
I->   I->
they said a word in the L1,/then they said it in
I->
the second language./ They should understand what

it really means.

I->
[Sequence][7]Tutor: We are talking about adult second language learners./
I->
So you are saying they should be taught through the
I->
grammar translation method,/ when you translate from the

second language to the first language.

I->
[Sequence][8]Amanda : Because it is not easy for an adult to learn a new language

in a later stage.
I->   E->
[Sequence][9]Tutor: When you talk about an adult,/ what age do you have in mind?
(Closed referential)/
I->   E->
Let's look at ourselves,.../ at what age did we learn English?

(Closed referential)

[Sequence][10] Amanda: Silence!

                                           E->
[Sequence][11]Tutor: Were you an adult at that time?(**Closed referential**)
                                           RI->
[Sequence][12]Amanda: No.
                                           A->
[Sequence][13]Tutor: You were not.
                                           I->
[Self-selection][14]Ntebogang: After puberty.

                             A->   I->   E->
[Sequence][15]Tutor: After puberty./ Let's say twelve years./ So would it be

                           difficult for a twelve year old to acquire the L2?
                         (**Closed referential**)
                           RI->   I->
[Sequence][16] Ntebogang: Well it depends/ because it is so easy for a child to
                                      I->
                         acquire the L2/ because his brain at that time

                         is still fresh to acquire new things./ He
                             I->   I->
                         can acquire English./ Then after English he can
                                                I->
                         acquire Setswana, French, you see./ But for an adult
                                 E->
                         the…/what is the term used to describe this period **…**?
                              RI->
[Sequence][17]Tutor: Laterization.
                              I->   I->
[Sequence][18] Ntebogang: After laterization, has expired/ one can have

                         difficulty acquiring the L2.
                                  I->   I->
[Self-selection][19]Seithati: I think they would be stiff in the tongue/ because they
                                     I->
                   are used to the L1./ So even in terms of

                       pronunciation, it will be really very difficult/
                               I->
                       and also adults are subconscious than children./
                             I->
                       There are barriers that this is not my language./ It is a
                     I->   I->
                   foreign language. /So, I don't have to learn the language./
                     I->   I->
                   If I understand what the people say,/ it doesn't matter to me./
                     I->
                   Yes, and also depends on the motivation of the
                                 I->
                   language learner./ If he really likes the language,/

I->   I->
                    if he really wants to learn the language, / he can acquire

                    the language easily.

                                    E->
[Sequence][20]Tutor: Is there anything else?(**Open referential**)
                                    I->
[Self-selection][21]Ntebogang: And it also depends on the environment for
                                                    I->
                    learning the language./ Like you find that

                    he learns it only when he is in class./
                                    I->
[Sequence][22]Tutor: So this is why it is difficult for the second language

                    adult learners.
                    I->
[Sequence][23]Ntebogang: Yeah!.
                                        E->
[Sequence][24]Tutor: What are the... are other barriers that might make

                     his acquisition slow or not as easy as the child

                     apart from motivation and exposure?**(Closed referential)/**
                    I->
                    Let's look at
                                                    E->
                    the child first./ What makes a child learn the first

                    language easily?**(Open referential)**
                                                    I->
[Sequence][25]Ntebogang: When he receives input from an adult,/
                                        I->   I->
                    say maybe he says something correct /and you then

                    say that's very good my girl, keep trying you see./
                            I->
                    So, she will have that motivation to keep on trying,/
                                    I->
                    whereas when she makes a mistake/ you become
                        I->   I->
                    harsh on her.../ you say that's wrong /,it'll lower her
                            I->
                    from wanting to learn more./
                                                    I->
[Self-selection][26]Seithati: And also I think it's difficult for an adult to learn
                                        I->
                    the second language/ because some of the words

                    are difficult to pronounce and even the sentence

                    structure you don't know what comes first./
                                        E->
                    Is it the subject or is it the verb?/ And then you are
                                    I->

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embarrassed that you are going to say something

wrong.

<pre>
                              E->
[Sequence][27]Tutor: Are we talking about learning or acquiring here?

                       (**Closed referential**)/
                              I->   E->
                          We are talking about the L2 learner…/ right?(**Confirmation**)/
                              I->
                          We assume that pronunciation will be part of the learning
                                                              I->
                          that you get in the classroom./ But what we might not

                          feel free to do is to interact and maybe be a risk

                          taker.
                                                   I->
[Self-selection][28]Amanda: Children are not afraid to make mistakes./
                              I->
                          Adults are afraid to be laughed at./
                              I->
[Sequence][29]Tutor: So that becomes a barrier.
                              I->
[Sequence][30]Amanda: It is a barrier.

                              I->   E->
[Sequence][31]Tutor: It is a barrier to adults./ So, is there anything else

                           you want to say? (**Open referential**)
                             I->   E->
[Topic-change][32]Amanda: Yes./ How errors were corrected?
                                            I ->
[Sequence][33]Tutor: Now let's look at the way errors were corrected./
                              E->   E->
                          Did that help you?(**Closed referential**)/
                              E->
                          Did they correct the errors which made understanding
                                                            E->
                          difficult**?(Closed referential**) / or did they correct any

                          error that you made?(**Closed referential**)/

                              I->   I->   I->
[Self-selection][34]Ntebogang: Not all of them./ Some would correct you, / others

                          would just say as long as what you said is

                          correct that's fine with them.
                                                    I->
[Self-selection][35]Seithati: With the errors, we were only corrected in essays,
                                                        I->
                          class work and tests./ When it comes to talking,/
                                        I->
                          we would just talk anyhow without being corrected.
</pre>

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	E->
[Sequence][36]Tutor:	But did it help?**(Closed referential)**

I->   I->

[Sequence][38]Seithati: It helped in terms of writing./ But when it comes to

I->

talking,/ it didn't help.

C->

[Sequence][39]Tutor: It didn't help to be corrected?

I->

[Sequence][40]Seithati: It didn't help.

E->

[Sequence][41]Tutor: So you think if your output was corrected, it would

have helped?(**Closed referential)**

I->

[Sequence][42]Seithati: Yes I think so.

I->

[Sequence][43]Tutor: And I'm sure the reason for doing that they didn't

want to discourage you from talking.

I->   I->

[Self-selection][44]Amanda: I think if you talk in a polite way/ I'd learn./

I->

But if I'm told 'you are stupid and all that',/ I'd

I->

be discouraged.

A->   I->

[Sequence][45]Tutor: Right/ can we then look at question three on the

E->

board./ Would a child that is locked up in a room daily

I->

acquire language**?(Closed referential**)/ In the first tutorial, we

had one student who told us of a film, Tarzan./ Did

E->

you see Tarzan**?(Closed referential)/**

E->

Remember what happened Tarzan?**(Closed referential)**

I->

[Sequence][46] Amanda: He used to speak monkey language.

E->

[Sequence][47]Tutor: Now what does that mean**?(Open referential**)/

E->

What does that tell us?(Open referential)/

E->

when we look at second language acquisition?/

(Open referential)

I->

[Sequence][48]Amanda: He got the input of the monkeys /

I->   I->

now that's what he knows exists./ He doesn't

know anything about language.

```
                                                           I->
[Sequence][49]Tutor:              So, that shows us the importance of input./ Right/ let's


                                  I->                              E->
                                  look at question four./ Why is input and output


                                  important in first and second language acquisition?
                                  **(Open referential)**
                                       I->                    I->
[Sequence][50]Amanda:             I think output is important/ because when I hear
                                       I->                              I->
                                  something,/ I have to pronounce it/ in order for me to


                                   know I can really say the word.
                                       E->
[Sequence][51]Tutor:              Is it just pronunciation which we are focusing on or


                                  on input and output?**(Closed referential)**
                                                    I->
[Self-selection][52]Seithati:     I think there is a saying that' practice makes
                                           I->
                                  perfect'./ If  you practice then you become perfect ./
                                                    E->
[Sequence][53]Tutor:              Well, are there any questions you want to ask?
                               (**Open referential)**
                                       I->                    E->
                                  It helps to ask questions./Any questions?**(Open referential)/**
                                       I->                    I->
                                  If there are no questions,/ then thank you for coming.
                                       I->
                                  Thank you.
```

                                                    I->
[Self-selection][1]Merry: In the paragraph, still looking at the caption

                                    there are some exaggerations here,/
                                            I->
                                    when we look at *fuming* and *smeared.*
                                                    I->
[Self-selection][2]*Joe*:   Fuming is a hyperbole.
                                            I->   I->
  [Sequence][3]Merry: And smeared is a metaphor./ It has exaggerated the

                                    whole thing as far as the name of Phosa has been

                                    published around the matter of corruption.
                                            E->
[Sequence][4]Joe: So what are you saying where it says, 'He

                                    has to be named in the nominal high level of

                                    corruption?'
                                            I->
[Topic change][5]*Tic*h: What we have to do right now without wasting time is

                                    to look at the paragraph…how it is written, the

                                    content, commas, punctuations, dashes?/ and what…
                                            E->
[Self-selection][6]*Jerry*:   Before we get to the commas, what

                                    about the language?

                                        I->
[Self-selection][7] Merry: Looking at both stories, according to journalism,/
                                            I->
                                    we were supposed to get the five W's in the
                                                            I->
                                    page here./ But then looking into the writer of the
                                                        I->
                                    City Press, /there are those elements of journalistic terms
                                                                I->
                        rather than one of Sunday Times./ There is confusion.
                                            I->
                                    They start by going into details./
                                            I->
[Self-selection][8]Joe: I have a problem of saying' Phosa chooses ANC

                                    leaders,' and 'Scorpions investigate Phosa', /when it
                                            I->   I->
                                    says 'continuation'./ But when we say 'continuation',/ it
                                            I->
                                    means that it has been stopped now/ and
                                            I->   I->
                                    it's continuing./ And that's what is not happening

I->
here./   Actually when you read inside the newspaper,/
                                I->
there is a portion which deals with politics./ Now here
                          I->
it's all about politics./ But here now it draws attention
                  I->
irrespective of whether Phosa choose ANC leaders./
                          I->
Whether you used to read politics, economics or
                                    I->
whatever,/ here the writer says 'politics'./ So, I don't
                          I->
want us to say here is the continuation.
                   I->   I->   I->
[Self-selection][9]Betty: Let me answer you./ This was on the front page / and this was

                                 on page two.

                                      CI->
[Sequence][10]Joe: This is not page two.
                                    E->
[Allocation][11] Betty: How do you know that?
                             I->
[12]Joe: I've got the City Press./
                             C->   I->
[Self-selection][13]Merry: Let's not argue around the issue./ What I see here might be
                                                      I->
the continuation of the story,/ but not on the same week paper./
                                                    I->
Maybe the following week's paper is where the story continues,/
                          I->
and it goes into depth with the investigation./ That is now where
                  I->   I->
the Scorpions appear/ because it was only Phosa who was

                                 involved in the matter, i.e. who chose those leaders.

                                    I->
[Sequence][14]Joe: Let's try to analyse paragraph by paragraph.
                                    I->
[Self-selection][15]Tich: Let me look at paragraph one of the City Press and

                                 the Sunday Times, 'Here Scorpions investigate
                                                      I->
Phosa',/ the paragraph does not conclude any
                                                    I->
sentences./ It is just a paragraph with one sentence
                                                    I->
and a full stop./ Unlike when you compare the Sunday
                                                    I->   I->
Times,/ they have two commas and a full stop./ This
                                    I->
is necessary/ to make the whole paragraph run

                                 258

I->
smoothly /and to give an insight of what the story is all about.

E->

[Self-selection][16]Amanda: Were you trying to say each paragraph consists of

a sentence?

I->

[Sequence][17] Tich: Yes each paragraph consists of one sentence./

I->

It's time up.

                                                 I->   I->

[Self-selection][1]Tutor: There is no evidence.../there is no evidence./

                                              I->

[Self-selection][2]*Tsweni* :   I will also say that Briel... /even though the warder is

                                             I->

                  a White man, I mean… /he wanted all the prisoners to

                                          I->

                  call him boss./ But they refused to call him boss.

                                          E->

[Sequence][3]Tutor: Does that make him uneducated?(**Closed referential**)

                                          I->

[Sequence][4]Tsweni: The thing is a……

                                          I->

[Self-selection][5] Didimas: I think or according to the things that happened

                                                     I->

               during those days,/ the Whites used to get positions,/

                                         I->

               even though the blacks were educated.

                                          I->

[Self-selection][6]Dorothy: But this man, for me, I think when it says…

                                    E->

[Self-selection][7]Tutor: …which page**?(Closed referential)**

                             I->

[Sequence][8]Dorothy: First page.

                             A->

[Sequence][9]Tutor: Okay!

                                   I->

[Sequence][10]Dorothy: It says,' But before he could send the message, the

                  warder in charge of his work shouted, '*Hey, what do u*

                                       C->

                  you thing.?'/ I think somewhere his English was not

                  right./

                  A->   I->

[Sequence][11]Tutor: Yes,/ that's the evidence.

                           I->

[Sequence][12]Dorothy: So, that made me to suspect that this man

                                        I->

               was uneducated./ Another thing I like about Briel was

                                          I->

               that he was concerned about his family./ Yes, even

                                          I->

               though he was in the prison, /he was thinking about

                                    I->

               where they were./ I mean like the life they were

               living./ I mean…

               A->   E->

[Allocation][13]Tutor: Okay!/ Do you have anything you want to say about

the story, Baboloki**?(Open referential**)/
I->
[14]Baboloki: What I would say is that this prisoner who wore glasses was beaten by his warder./
I->
// I don't know the pronunciation of this..//
I->   I->
because he had much intelligence/ and he was in

charge of the other prisoners.
E->
[Sequence][15]Tutor: So, what does that mean?**(Open referential)**
I->
[Sequence][16]Baboloki: It means that he was in charge of the other prisoners

and…
E->
[Sequence][17]Tutor: …was he in charge of the other prisoners?(**Closed referential**)/
I->   E->
He just assumed that role…/right? **(Confirmation check)**

I->
[Self-selection][18]Dorothy: I think he just wanted to intimidate the warder.
E->
[Sequence][19]Tutor: Is that the only reason**?(Closed referential**)/

Did he really want to intimidate the warder?/

(**Closed referential)**
I->
I thought the information we have about his ten children would

come in here./ Why do you think he assumed that role of being
E->
a leader?**(Open referential)**

RI->
[Self-selection][20]Didimas: Because he was old.
E->
[Sequence][21]Tutor: Because he was old…his age?**(Confirmation check)**
RI->
[Sequence][22]Didimas: Because he was older than the others/
I->
and he couldn't call him…
I->
[Sequence][23]Tutor: And of course the other prisoners were younger than
I->   I->
Briel./ He seems to be the only family man,/ from what

we have been told in the story.
I->
[Self-selection][24]Dorothy: I want clarification here about the behaviour of…/
I->
I mean their emotions, when they… welcoming this new warder./

<pre>
                                        I->
                        It says in line 1-3, paragraph 3, first page, 'Yes

                                              I->
                        a simple primitive brutal soul',/ I just want to

                        understand…
                                        E->
[Sequence][25]Tutor: What do you want to understand?(Open referential)
                                        RI->   I->
[Sequence][26]Dorothy: The behaviour of the prisoners,/ how they welcomed
                                        I->
                        or how they feel about this man, 'A simple, primitive

                        brutal soul'.
                                        E->
[Sequence, allocation][27]Tutor: Why he is called a simple, primitive brutal soul?
</pre>

(Open referential)/
<pre>
                                        I->
                        Dorothy wants an explanation, Tsweni.
                                        I->
    [28]*Tsweni*:   Because unlike when we look at that paragraph…/ I
                            I->   I->
                        mean like the last sentence you can hear,/ when the

                        prisoners said to him, 'will I have trouble this time
                                                        I->
                        comrades',/ I mean like the accent can really tell, its
                                                      I->
                        kind of like, /I mean …I'm really stuck./
                            E->
[Sequence][29]Tutor: Why is he called brutal?(Open referential)/
                            I->
                        He has not yet started it./
                            E->
                        Why do you think they called him a brutal soul?
</pre>

(Open referential)/
<pre>
                                        I->
                         They could see it from inside./ So, why do they
                                                      E->
                         call him a simple, primitive brutal soul?(Open referential)
                            RI->
[Self-selection][30]Dorothy: I think according to them he looked like the way

                        he dressed.
                                        E->
[Sequence, allocation][31]Tutor: And did they finally get him on their side?(Closed referential)/
                                        I->
                        Because we are told about him being smart./ And what makes

                                        E->
                        you say he was smart?(Open referential)
</pre>

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Was he smart, Baboloki?**(Closed referential)**

|->
[32]Baboloki: I don't know.

                            |-> |->
[Self-selection][33]Didimas: I would say he is smart/ because he ended up

                                |->
 pleading with them/ and he wanted them to be on

his side.

                      E->
[Self-selection][34]Tutor: Did he end up pleading with them?(**Closed referential)/**
                      |-> |->
Let's continue next time./Thank you.

APPENDIX 2

Assessing initiative of students' speech acts in tutorials.

Dear Colleague

The excerpts below are taken from different tutorials in the English department at NWU (Mafikeng campus). You are requested to rate 24 students' speech acts (provided in bold print in the excerpts) in terms of the degree of initiative shown in each case. In general it could be said that the degree of initiative that students' reveal during interaction in a tutorial reflects factors such as how actively and assertively they are involved in participation and how much value they add to the development of the discussion.

Your rating should be given on a scale of 1- 4 as follows: 1-no initiative, 2- very little initiative, 3- a fair degree of initiative and 4-a high degree of initiative. Assess each one of them by completing the scale on page 6. Before rating the speech acts, you are requested to read through all the excerpts to familiarise yourself with the context in which they are used.

Excerpt 1

Tutor:	*Is the landlady really able to tell that the caller is African?*
Dorothy:	I think she is just suspecting that the caller might be African.
Tutor:	*What makes you say that?*
Dorothy:	**[1] Line 18?**
Tutor:	*Yes. Who asks that question?*
Dorothy:	**[2] It is the landlady.**
Tutor:	*So that indicates that she wasn't sure of the colour, ethnicity and background. This is why she asks that question. What about the caller?*
Dorothy:	The caller is trying to convince the landlady by saying…
Tutor:	*…line 22, can you read that?*
Dorothy:	Not all together.

Excerpt 2

Dorothy:	I think the poem we did yesterday was easy compared to this one. For this one, I had to take my dictionary and look up some words. It took some time for me to understand.
Tutor:	*Like which words?*
Dorothy:	**[3] Like stereotype and peroxide blond**.
Tutor:	*But peroxide blond is a colour.*

Dorothy:	Yes…I didn't know they were colours. I looked at the explanation in the dictionary.
Tutor:	*I find this poem easy compared to the one we did yesterday. This one is written like a conversation.*
Didimas:	**[4] But it doesn't look like a poem**.

Excerpt 3

Tutor:	*Is there an individual who can try to highlight the principles that are expected from the Christians?*
Tony:	**[5] What is expected from the Christians?**
Maria:	We are expected to believe in God, not to commit adultery, to behave in a good manner and not to kill.
Mark:	**[6] I think we are told to love our neighbours as ourselves.**
Tutor:	*Ok!*
Mark:	In that as this dishonesty is taking place even when the preacher sees with his own eyes that deed, he tries to conceal it by not wanting the matter being heard by the community, which does not make him an honest person.
Tutor:	*And for that matter he is a preacher.*
Mark:	**[7] He is a preacher.**
Tutor:	*Ok!*
Mark:	And with concepts like greediness, which are lustful…
Tutor:	*…values.*
Mark:	**[8] Not values, lustful desires emanating from wanting more money at the expense of other people getting poorer**.
Tutor:	*Ok! It also highlights selfishness. Anybody to add to that? What about Abigail?*
Tebogo:	Actually, she was in love with Proctor.
Mark:	I do not think they were in love.
Tony:	**[9] It was lust. [10] The fact that they had an affair.**
Tebogo:	**[11] They had an affair.**
Mark:	But there is nowhere…where it is written.
Tutor:	*It is not necessarily an affair. They were just flirting.*
Tony:	**[12] But we both know that Elizabeth suspected that Abigail and Proctor had an affair**..
Mark:	Well, as we are pointing out in the text, it was mentioned.
Tony:	That is why that thing is adultery, having an affair with a married man.
Mark:	**[13] But nowhere is it mentioned that it goes on and it stops.**
Tony:	No, there is. I mean by reading the play one can conclude that.

Excerpt 3

Tutor:	*They are discriminating against left, meaning people using the left hand. Are you changing your story?*
Lydia:	I don't think they usually mean hands. They are talking about life not hands.
Tutor:	*Is it about life not hands?*
Lydia:	**[14] Yeah.**
Mavis:	That's what I was trying to say, actually.

Excerpt 4

Nono:	And looking at what I've experienced, my silent period was a bit longer than my first language.
Tutor:	*Why is that?*
Mmabatho:	Because I think that it is not our mother tongue.

Nono: **[15]   Yes.**

Excerpt 5

Tutor: *It is a barrier to adults. So, is there anything else you want to say?*

Amanda: Yes. **[16] How were errors corrected?**

Tutor: *Now let's look at the way errors were corrected. Did that help you? Did they correct the errors which made understanding difficult? Or did they correct any error that you made?*

Excerpt 6

Tutor: *Do you find that you have a problem understanding South African English?*

Amanda: South African English is just the same as the English we speak in Botswana.

Duncan: It's just the same because each and every word they use is also what we use at home.

Tutor: *What about pronunciation? Did you have a problem* understanding Dr. Whiteman?

Amanda: [**17**]   **Yes,** because if you sit at the back you wouldn't hear him.

Tutor: *What is the problem? Does he talk fast?*

Duncan: He is fast. Even that is a problem.

Excerpt 7

Tutor: *And this one formed the headlines in the City Press.*

Timothy: **[18]   The sub-heading supports the meaning of the headlines.**

Tutor: *Yes, that is true because the headlines are there to attract your attention. But you may find that you don't get the real*

         meaning of what the article is all about, especially when it is a long article. So, by giving the sub-heading you begin to get the sort of details of what the story is all about.

Timothy: And the other thing in the City Press article for those who don't know Phosa, they have provided a picture.

Lucie: [**19**]   **But there is no picture in the Sunday Times.**
         [20]   I think it is because of the space.

Anna: **[21]   It makes you feel like you don't know anything about Phosa.**

Timothy: **[22]   I don't know if the comma is referring to Phosa because if it is, it would have been 'Phosa former legal adviser hit back'.**

Lucie: If it were and you had not read anything about it, you could be misguided.

Timothy: I think with that information you can say that this writer is targeting certain readers who have read something about the story because if you haven't read anything about the story you wouldn't understand it at all.

Excerpt 8

Tutor: *Do you think women should talk about their experiences or should they continue to protect their families?*

Mike: I don't think women shouldn't talk about these things.
         [23]   But are we going to take the new liberal type of dominant culture and define it according to the African terms?

Tutor: *What will be the African terms?*

Mike: I'm not particularly clear about that one. But what I am clear about is that White women writers have little understanding of family relations amongst African communities and they shouldn't be defined in those kind of struggles for our own women.

Excerpt 9

Tsweni: I think I enjoyed the poem because unlike the way the whites…
Tutor: *We are talking about the poem.*
Tsweni: **[24]   Okay**, the poem itself.
Tutor: *Not about Black and White. The structure of the poem, the techniques that the writer has used. If you compare it with the poem we discussed yesterday, do you find this one better or not?*

Please indicate whether each student's speech act reflects a high, fair, very little or on initiative by ticking in the appropriate column.

Speech acts	1- No initiative	2 -Very little initiative	3 - Fair degree of initiative	4 - High degree of initiative
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				
6.				
7.				
8.				
9.				
10.				
11.				
12.				
13.				
14				
15.				
16.				
17				
18.				
19.				
20.				
21.				
22.				
23.				
24.				